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Libyan Secondary School EFL Teachers and Communicative Language  
Teaching: Attitudes, Beliefs and Constraints in Implementation

Salem Abu Talag

Thesis Submitted to the School of Modern Languages & Cultures  
in Partial Fulfilment of the Requirements for the Degree of  
Doctor of Philosophy

Durham University

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## Abstract

The communicative approach to language teaching is based on the theory of language as communication. According to Hymes (1972), language teaching is interpreted by learners as learning through communicative competence. Researchers, particularly in EFL secondary teachers' classroom practices, have emphasized teachers' concentration on using grammar translation (GTM) and audio-lingual (ALM) methods. However, most studies did not investigate teachers' beliefs (as situated in their cultural context) and their classroom practice. Therefore, taking Libya as an example, the aim of this study is to find out whether EFL secondary teachers implement the CLT approach in their classrooms. A data collection triangulation method was utilized involving different research tools. Firstly, an evaluation of a questionnaire distributed to 24 participating Libyan teachers was carried out. Secondly, classroom observations of the same teachers were conducted, applying the communicative orientation of language teaching observation scheme (COLT). Here, the four categories derived from the literature on CLT are employed to determine whether the teaching methodology is communicative. Finally, the same teachers were interviewed to investigate their beliefs and attitudes concerning the CLT approach and its practicality.

The results of the qualitative and quantitative data analyses indicated that teachers do not implement the CLT approach. This is due to several factors: low teacher language proficiency; over-reliance on textbooks; class size; time limitations; and lack of adequate training in classroom implementation. An analysis of challenges teachers encounter in implementing CLT and recommendations arising from the study constitute the final chapter of this research.

## Dedication

*To the soul of my beloved  
father*

*To the soul of my beloved mother*

*To the soul of my dearest brother*

*To the soul of my beloved  
father-in-law*

*To my beloved wife and children; Mohammed, Nuwara, Anas, Ibraheem Nmareq and  
Libya*

*To my dearest brothers and sisters and friends*

To the soul of everyone who offered blood for the sake of our country's freedom during the  
revolution of 17<sup>th</sup> February, 2011

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## List of Abbreviations

ALM	Audio-Lingual Method
BA	Bachelor of Arts
CA	Communicative Approach
CLCA	Communicative Learner-Centred Approach
CEFR	Council of Europe Framework of References
CLT	Communicative Language Teaching
COLT	Communicative Orientation of Language Teaching
EFL	English as a Foreign Language
ELT	English Language Teaching
ESL	English as a Second Language
FLT	Foreign Language Teaching
GTM	Grammar-Translation Method
LAD	Language Acquisition Device
L2	Second Language
MoE	Ministry of Education
NL	Native Language
SLA	Second Language Acquisition
SL	Second Language
S-S/C	Student to Student or to Classs
TBLT	Task Based Language Teaching
TCA	Teacher-Centred Approach
TEFL	Teaching English as a Foreign Language
TESOL	Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages
TL	Target Language
T-S/C	Teacher to Student or to Class

## Chapter 1 Introduction

### 1.0 Background

There are several existing ESL/EFL teaching approaches and methods (Larsen-Freeman, 2000; Richards and Rodgers, 2001). Researchers continue to seek the best (Byram, 2000; Richards and Rodgers, 2001; Howatt and Widdowson, 2004), but the prevailing conclusion of many practitioners points towards the effectiveness of having combined approaches and methods instead of focusing on one particular approach or method. The term ‘approach’ is used to refer to the theoretical principles behind language teaching and learning (Antony, 1963; Richards and Rodgers, 2001; Wong, 2012), whereas ‘method’ describes a plan used to present the language to learners in an organised manner (Antony, 1963). ‘Techniques’ involve the strategies teachers’ use, for example to explain vocabulary (Antony, 1963).

Over the years, researchers have tried to identify the best ways of teaching the different language skills of listening, speaking, reading and writing. According to Richards and Rodgers (2001), these methods are developed in response to learners’ proficiency needs. In the 1970s, a crucial shift occurred towards a focus on learners’ communication needs. Consequently, traditional methods, such as grammar translation, were seen to be deficient. In many countries, a shift was welcomed towards teaching communication, perhaps partly as a response to growing socio-economic changes that relied heavily on information and communication-based processes of transactions. In the 1990s, EFL teaching increased in both the professional and commercial sectors. With millions of non-English speaking adults requiring proficiency in English for professional and personal reasons, the global demand for EFL courses increased significantly. English has become the international language of education, daily communication, medicine, technology, and so on (Crystal, 1992; Graddol, 2006). Graddol (2006) pointed out that English is expected to influence science and technology in the near future. Crystal (1992) emphasised that English has become a superior power across the world; therefore, we need to scrutinize the education system in order to prepare graduates for the international market and society.

We must emphasise that teaching a foreign language is not the same as learning. As Crystal (1997:301) described it as “the study of language from the point of view of users, especially of the choices they make, the constraints they encounter in using language in social

interaction and the effects their use of language has on other participants in the act of communication”. Thus, it is important that, the while education sector is demanding better communicative language teaching, there is also the need to establish where the learners can use the new language that they will learn. A CLT will have a better chance of success if the learners will be able to appreciate the need to use the new language that they have to learn.

Although we see our future as being bilingual, there can also be some changes to how the world looks at the English language in the near future. Graddol (2006) stated that there could be “complex ethical issues associated with the world dominance of a single language.” As the world sees it, the English language is trying to dominate as it is gaining recognition as the world’s second language. According to this framework, we should establish any developments in communicative language teaching. We must not focus only on teaching ESL/EFL, but also on providing a teaching approach that can benefit the learner concerning any language that he/she will want to learn.

The need to establish a new approach in teaching a language must not focus on a particular language, but more on how we as a society can use the language to further understand each other. Development in any CLT must be based on all languages so that it can be used anywhere in the world, and not just to learn the English language. If the CLT is to become successful, the world may not become bilingual, but multi-lingual.

The result of this worldwide demand was felt in the education sector, to which the response was the development and enhancement of communicative language teaching, or CLT (Savignon, 2002). This approach was first developed in the UK in 1970 in the form of a functional-notional method (Johnson, 2001). Today, CLT is widely used all over the world. Savignon (1991) has described it as a response to the requirements of learners in twentieth-century language learning. CLT is considered a valuable guide to the implementation of L2 teaching programmes. Many curriculum and course designers, textbook writers, assessment experts and teachers now consistently describe themselves as practitioners of CLT

(Kumaravadivelu, 1993). A large number of teachers claim to have positive attitudes towards CLT, and consider themselves to be active practitioners. Among the teachers interviewed, Wong (2012) found that the participants believed in the implementation of CLT to achieve communicative competence.

A range of studies has been conducted regarding the CLT approach, and research has often revealed that its principles are rarely practised in the classroom. Although many teachers purport to be committed to CLT, in practice they use traditional methods such as the grammar translation method (GTM), while others simply cannot specify what their approach is (Wong, 2012). In addition, from his observation of L2 classrooms and in-service training courses in various contexts in Western Europe, Egypt, the USA, Australia and New Zealand, Thornbury (1998) concluded that CLT is nothing but a “direct” (grammar-oriented) method, and that Task based language teaching (TBLT) is just a chimera. Although teachers have not abandoned a grammar-driven approach, there was little evidence concerning the application of alternatives, such as task-based methods, which have made a lasting impression on the current practice of English language teaching (Thornbury, 1998).

Concerns about English teaching centre on its importance to governments around the world, given English’s centrality to trade and global relations. Governments recognise that English is vital for improving their economic status. Consequently, an increasing number of language centres and schools that offer a vast range of EFL courses using a variety of teaching frameworks have been established.

EFL students learn English for many reasons. Some wish to have access to an international language. Others wish to learn English to improve their chances of admission to foreign universities. Others seek to compete in international commerce. English has become a globally-taught foreign language, and there has long been a significant need to teach it for communication purposes (Gebhard, 2006; Carrick, 2007).

However, the demand for ESL/EFL teaching has also increased at other times in the twentieth century. For example, after World War II, various English courses were started up for immigrants and foreign students in the United Kingdom, Canada, the United States of America and Australia (Richards, 2001). Researchers in many countries have observed that, after studying English for eight years in secondary school, students could not communicate in the language (Tang, 2002; Orafi and Borg, 2009; Shiba, 2011). This led educationalists such as Johnstone (1994), Grarner (1999), and Tucker and Donato (1999) to propose the teaching

of English in primary schools. Recently, Teaching English is considered as a subject taught in primary schools in countries such as Libya, Kuwait, Taiwan, Japan, Qatar and China. Educationalists believe that teaching English at primary school level is beneficial in helping students achieve higher language proficiency (Johnstone, 1994).

It is important to define the difference between ESL and EFL. Educational researchers (Rixon, 2000; Richards, 2001) differentiate the two in terms of learning and teaching a foreign and second language. Learning a foreign language (FL) occurs where the foreign language is not the first or native language in the country concerned, and one example of such a situation is in Libya, where Arabic is the native language. The learning of English as a second language, however, takes place in a country in which English is the first language. An example of this is immigrants in the United Kingdom learning English (Gebhard, 2006). Gebhard considered that there are other differences between these two settings. For example, learners in many FL settings share the same first language and the same history while, in most second language (SL) settings, students speak different languages as they originate from different countries. Gebhard, (2006) reported that, in most FL settings, learners have fewer opportunities to use English outside the classroom. This scenario is different from SL settings where learners have considerably more opportunities to use the language outside class since they reside in an English-speaking country. Gebhard also added that goals regarding language learning differ in the two settings. Students of the language in a foreign language setting are usually just taught to pass exams. In some instances, their main objective is to progress to higher education. In a few cases, students may learn the language for basic communication. In an SL setting, the main goal is to use the language and interaction in an appropriate way. However, Gebhard pointed out that the differences between the two settings may not apply to all learners, and he gives examples of learning and teaching in EFL and ESL that illustrate how unsatisfactory it is to generalise about all learners within EFL and ESL settings and about all language programmes. Such overgeneralisations can be quite misleading, even to the point of stereotyping all EFL learners as having certain language learning experiences (Gebhard, 2006).

It can be argued that foreign language learning takes longer, since there is usually no reinforcement outside the classroom. In this context, the teacher usually uses the L1 for a short time in a class. The teacher is the main source of knowledge. In such a situation, it is recommended that more time be spent on FL learning and teaching (Curtain, 2000), and learning outcomes tend to be associated with the amount of time available for learning. In

addition, the more time students spend studying the target language with a skilled and fluent teacher, the more advantageous this will be in terms of their language proficiency (Curtain, 2000).

To define the different situations in which CLT is applied, it is necessary to consider the method used, the circumstances and the purpose. Brown (1994) specified four categories of teaching, depending on the different contexts in learning English. These include:

- 1) English as a native language (ENL);
- 2) English as an international language (EIL), which would include the learning of English in India, Singapore and the Philippines;
- 3) English as a second language (ESL), which entails learning English as a non-native language in an environment in which English is spoken, such as Arabic speakers learning English in the United Kingdom; and
- 4) EFL, which involves the learning of an L2 in addition to the native language.

Kachru (1992) coined the term 'World English' and suggested with the idea of three concentric circles of English to provide a better understanding of the English language. The three circles consist of the inner, the outer and the expanding circles (see Figure 1).

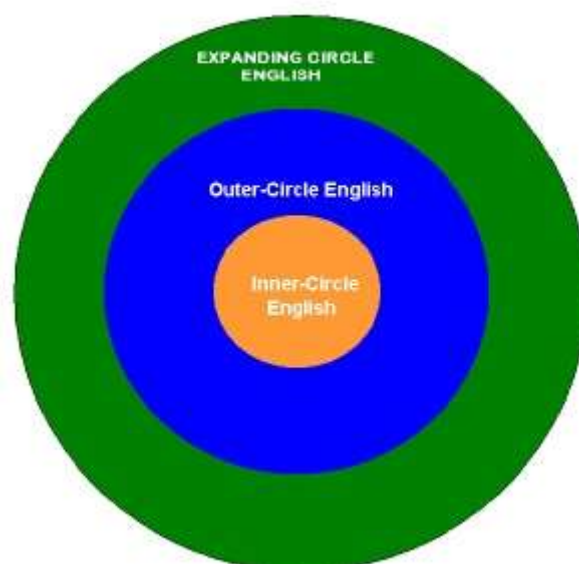


Figure 1 Kachru's Concentric Circles of Englishes

The Inner Circle refers to the countries that consider English to be their mother tongue, and the use of the English language is mentioned as being “norm-providing”. The countries involved are the USA, the UK, Canada, Australia, Ireland and New Zealand. These countries represent the traditional, historical and sociolinguistic origins of English in areas in which it is used and recognised as the primary language (Kachru, 2006; Wehbe, 2015).

The Outer Circle comprises the earlier stages of the spread of English in non-native environments where the language has become part of the country's major institutions and has a vital function as the “second language” in a multilingual setting: countries include Bangladesh, Ghana, Kenya, Pakistan, Sri Lanka, Malaysia, Philippines, Tanzania, India, Singapore, Nigeria and Zambia. These are the countries that try to use English as a supplementary language, particularly when communicating with other English-speaking nationalities. In these countries, English may not be the people's first language, but they use it as a lingua franca between ethnic and language groups.

The Expanding Circle is composed of the regions or countries in which English is rarely used or is not used at all. Furthermore, English is only used as a medium for international communication. This circle consists of the following countries: China, Japan, Russia, Korea, South Africa, Nepal, South America, Zimbabwe, Egypt, Taiwan, Thailand and Saudi Arabia. These are countries that consider English one of their foreign languages, but never as an alternative medium to native- language communication.

When the three circles were created, it brought confusion regarding the kind of accent that should be applied globally when using the English language. It also added to confusion, particularly when considering that there are two English accents that people use worldwide, namely the British and the American accent. In addition, debates arose regarding the kind of model that should be followed in terms of accent - this was especially true for native and non-native-speaking countries. Moreover, the purpose of the circles is to identify those countries that have appreciated and used the English language as part of their basic communication, and which consider it merely to be a foreign language (Schmitz, 2014).

As there are notable variations in teaching contexts from country to country, the effectiveness of CLT depends on a variety of factors. However, one question is whether it can be implemented as effectively in EFL as in ESL contexts. Maples (1987) characterised the differences between ESL and EFL situations and considered it self-evident that the application of CLT to EFL is much more difficult than (P: 4) it is to ESL, but also more



necessary. This is because CLT was created for ESL environments, which makes it easier to be understood and implemented, while it is more difficult in EFL situations simply because this is a different environment for teaching and learning English. In other words, it might need modification and a longer implementation period.

Researchers focusing on CLT (Wong, 2012, Shiba, 2011, Orafi and Borg, 2009; Crawford, 2001) have reported that, in EFL contexts, the CLT approach is often not actually implemented. Educationalists, applied linguists and teachers may believe in and understand the principles governing learner or learning-centred methods, but, numerous difficulties have been reported in terms of implementing them in the classroom (see section, 2.12). Crawford (2001) identified factors affecting teachers' classroom practice, including the textbooks and course materials used, as well as assessment methods and teacher training programmes.

Whilst EFL courses worldwide aim to develop students' communicative competence, in actual delivery, as examined at length in Chapter 2, teachers fall back on traditional methods such as ALM and GTM, with a focus on form and accuracy.

Before the development of CLT, foreign language teaching methods from the period of 1840-1940 relied entirely on GTM. This approach involved the rote learning of grammatical rules and the translation of texts, and focused on reading and writing skills. However, by the 1950s, English language teaching and other approaches were developed in order to satisfy changing demand. For example, ALM was developed as a result of the GTM's lack of focus on listening and speaking (Byran, 2000). The decline of GTM coincided with ALM, which was later discussed in Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis (CAH) by Lado (1957), based on Skinner's concept of behaviourism (1957). Behaviourism considered language learning to be the formation of habits. Following this, a learner of a second language will use the habits formed in the first language. ALM emphasised that language needs to be focused on oral drilling and dialogue to avoid errors. However, despite opposition on various points, GTM and ALM are still used extensively in FLT throughout the world today.

However, while old methods are still utilised, teachers are constantly searching for newer and more effective language teaching methods, and what has evolved is a combination of methods known as the eclectic method (Richards and Rodgers, 2001). With assistance from the European Council and Wilkins, (1972) findings (as described in Chapter 2), the communicative approach was developed in the 1970s. This focuses on the promotion of genuine communication (Widdowson, 1978; Brumfit, 1979; Savignon, 1997), which places

emphasis on Practical knowledge, not merely theoretical knowledge, in relation to language competence. The motivation for this could be traced to Hymes' (1972) criticisms of Chomsky regarding linguistic competence. As far as Hymes is concerned, competence requires more than an abstract knowledge of language; it involves using that knowledge in communication.

According to CLT principles, the focus of instruction should be on activities of instruction where language is used and where meaningful tasks promote learning (Littlewood, 1984; Mitchell, 1994), and the language used has itself to be meaningful to the learner in order to promote such learning (Brumfit, 1984; Savignon, 2002; see Chapter 2).

Many researchers and educationalists have conducted investigations into CLT in the classroom (Lee, 1998; Crawford, 2001; Kirkgoz, 2006; Al-Nouh, 2008; Orafi and Borg, 2009; Shiba, 2011). Teachers have reported that they had encountered many challenges in implementing the CLT approach (see section, 2.13). For instance, Shiba's (2011) study in Libyan secondary schools utilised classroom observation and interviews with teachers, and concluded that difficulties such as a lack of adequate training hinder the implementation of the CLT approach. Orafi and Borg (2009) examined the implementation of a new communicative English language curriculum in Libyan secondary schools, and also referred to problems in implementing CLT (see section, 2.13). Li's (2001) study in South Korea concluded that, due to the students' lack of knowledge of English structures, the teachers encountered difficulties in oral communicative activities. Crawford (2001) reported that textbooks and materials that focused on grammar did not involve communicative activities. In connection with this point, the lack of adequate teacher training programmes has also been cited (Shiba, 2011; Al-Nouh, 2008).

Although research has shown that the constraints teachers encounter affect their practice in the classroom, it is important to understand more fully how these constraints are related to each other and to identify their effects on teachers' practices, as well as how the teachers' cultural basis and biases affect their methods. This is why my study aims to connect an investigation of the teachers' beliefs (as rooted in their cultural context) and their classroom practice, especially in the Libyan context (see Phillips et al. 2002a and 2002b).

This study focuses exclusively on Libya. It sets out to explore how CLT is implemented at the Libyan secondary school level and to identify the constraints on its application.

## 1.1 Thesis Organisation

Chapter 2 commences with a literature review. The origins of communicative language teaching (CLT) are elaborated upon. The components of foreign language (FL) delivery are then discussed, highlighting their role in language teaching. I then move on to consider how CLT is implemented in classrooms, touching upon the history of some of the language teaching approaches and methods currently in use before considering the problems regarding CLT implementation in an EFL context. The final section discusses the implementation of CLT in the EFL context in Libya in order to explain the challenges experienced.

The third chapter discusses the methodology used in this study. I consider the use of qualitative and quantitative approaches, then move on to the rationale for using a questionnaire, structured interviews and classroom observation. Details of the specific procedures used are explained, including those involving the instruments used and the selection of participants. Specific methodological issues are elaborated upon, including ethics and triangulation. The analytic procedures used are discussed with regard to data from the questionnaire, structured interviews and classroom observation.

In Chapter Four, the results from the questionnaire, the qualitative and quantitative analysis of data from structured interviews and classroom observation are presented. Frequency of teachers' answers constitutes the quantitative approach, and quotations from tape-recorded data are used as qualitative evidence.

Chapter Five provides a discussion of the findings and the conclusions of the study, and then states the most important implications and offers recommendations based on the results.

## Chapter 2 Literature Review

### 2.0 Introduction

This chapter focuses on the teaching of English as a foreign language (EFL) at the secondary level, starting with a brief description of the grammar translation method. The origins of CLT were then described before considering the difference between foreign language (EFL) and second language teaching (SLT). The main methods used by secondary school teachers are then considered, followed by a description of CLT, which is the method most widely recommended worldwide. The subsequent discussion concerns problems with the implementation of CLT in teaching English as a foreign language. The chapter ends by considering the case of Libya as an example of the implementation of CLT at secondary level in an EFL context.

### 2.1 Grammar Translation Method

GTM was developed during the 1840s-1940s (Richards and Rodgers, 2001). Its principle objectives were:

Helping students read and appreciate foreign language literature. It was also hoped that, through the study of the grammar of the target language, students would become more familiar with the grammar of their native language and that this familiarity would help them speak and write their native language better. Finally, it was thought that foreign language learning would help students grow intellectually (Larsen-Freeman 2000: 11).

Harvey (1985) stated that, when using the GTM, students are encouraged to translate sentences from the L2 into their L1 and vice versa. Brown (2000: 15-17) listed the main features of the grammar translation method as follows: 1) the L1 is widely used and there is little use of the target language; 2) vocabulary is listed on the board and learnt item by item; 3) grammar rules are largely taught; 4) there is much focus on the form and inflection of words; 5) reading is practised at an early stage of learning, 6) there is little focus on text content; 7) drills are done using translations without focusing on the L2 and 8) pronunciation is downplayed.

The goal of foreign language learning in the GTM is not to use the language, but just to learn the language in order to read literature or for translation or mental improvement. Reading and writing are the major focus, so that the L2 literature can be read (Byram, 2000). Richards and Rodgers (2001) summarised the features of GTM as follows: accuracy is emphasised, grammar is taught deductively, vocabulary is taught using bilingual word lists, dictionaries, and memorisation, and the L1 is the language of instruction in the classroom. Larsen-Freeman (2000) considered the nature of the classroom environment, in which much of a lesson can be spent translating sentences into and from the L2 (Larsen-Freeman, 2000). The classroom is teacher-centred, with little student-student interaction, and the teacher is the provider of knowledge. Errors are viewed negatively and corrected by the teacher.

This method has long been criticised because its main focus is on reading and writing skills at the expense of speaking and listening (Howatt and Widdowson, 2004). It emphasises learning and memorising grammatical rules and ignores communication skills. However, the GTM is still used by many foreign language teachers (Byram, 2000; Richards and Rodgers, 2001).

Richards and Renandya (2002) stated that GTM learners are expected to learn the rules and vocabulary of the target language deductively. Learners are asked to memorise and apply the rules to other examples.

Sanz and Morgan-Short (2004) pointed out that the GTM gives learners explicit information by explaining grammar and/or by giving negative corrective feedback. This method may lead to students becoming competent in grammar, but poor in communication (Sanz and Morgan-Short, 2004).

Reza et al. (2007) noted that the GTM is still the preferred method used to teach English in most countries, citing some countries' cultural context (language/lingua franca preferences) as the reason.

## 2.2 The Origins of Communicative Language Teaching (CLT)

CLT is a method of teaching a second or foreign language that highlights interaction as both the technique for and the objective of learning a language. CLT originated in Britain during the 1960s, serving as a replacement for the popular method known as situational language teaching based on the view of the structures of language. Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) emerged in the 1960s as a substitute for the grammar-focused method inspired by behavioural psychology and structural linguistics (Littlewood, 2013). However, as the years passed, criticism of these methods arose. The linguist Noam Chomsky (1966) criticised

structural linguistics because he believed it affected the way in which language was taught in terms of syntax and sentence generation. Chomsky's ideas about linguistic competence, called ALM, were based on the idea that learners know more about the language than they could have learned if they relied only on the input to which they are exposed. Chomsky's criticism and proposed alternatives gave rise to various proposals for improving language teaching. The CLT approach prevailed, since it developed as a response to the need to identify an alternative to ALM (which grew in popularity following the two world wars). Behaviourism, drills, repetition and habit formation are central elements of instruction in ALM. Developments of these methods would eventually affect how ESL would be approached in terms of various parameters, such as communication competence. The concept of communicative competence as proposed by Hymes (1972) led to some important shifts in ESL teaching regarding the design of course materials and teaching methodology. Chomsky (1965) first introduced the terms 'competence' and 'performance' in modern linguistics (Canale and Swain, 1980), where the former concerns formal linguistic knowledge and the latter essentially involves the perception and production of speech. Hymes, however, claimed that the description of competence and performance as devised by Chomsky does not address the appropriateness or the socio-cultural significance of an utterance in its situational and verbal context. According to Hymes, there are other types of rules that should be understood together with a grasp of grammar rules. Hymes suggested that, without these rules, a speaker would not be effective in the spoken language. Consequently, he proposed a different conception of competence that includes contextual or socio-linguistic competence. He drew a distinction between performance and communicative competence, stating that performance based merely on knowledge of grammatical rules does not result in appropriate performance. He argued that "there are rules of use without which the rules of grammar would be useless" (Hymes 1972: 278). Hymes refers to the use of such rules as communicative competence. Hymes (1972) pointed out that these rules concern socio-cultural aspects of communication with others; how, what, where, when and in what ways language is spoken in a given society. According to Chomsky, linguistic competence necessitates the knowledge and ability to use grammatical rules along with the native-speaker's style of communication. However, Hymes asserted that this definition is not appropriate, and instead suggested that effective performance is not merely the result of linguistic competence as defined by Chomsky, but also of knowledge of the rules of the socio-cultural context, hence, communicative competence is actually what results in appropriate performance.

Hymes' (1972) theory of communicative competence captured the attention of many syllabus designers. For instance, Canale and Swain (1980) suggested models for classroom teaching based on Hymes' views, and van Ek and Alexander (1975) and Wilkins (1976) proposed 'the notional syllabus' based on attention to Hymes' views of functions and notions.

Curriculum designers like Munby (1978), Widdowson (1978; 1979), Breen and Candlin (1980), Littlewood (1981), Brumfit and Johnson (1983) and Yalden (1983) also applied Hymes' views and devised communicative teaching materials accordingly (Richards and Rodgers, 2001).

In the functional-notional syllabus, the terms 'communicative', 'functional' and 'notional' are used interchangeably. Language functions are the basis for designing the units of the syllabus such as request and denial, and elements such as time and location (Yoon and Hirvela, 2004). However, while the functional-notional approach has a specific, well-defined syllabus, CLT has no unified syllabus; the syllabi used vary from educator to educator (Li, 1998).

Hymes' (1972) views were formulated in the 1970s, and CLT has since become an established approach to the communicative teaching of the language skills of reading, listening, writing and speaking skills. This teaching style is quite distinct from other teaching methods since it involves teachers, students and materials interacting as one component in the use of language.

According to Duff (2014: 15), "Communicative language teaching is an approach to language teaching that emphasises learning a language first and foremost for the purpose of communicating with the others". Richards and Rodgers (1986) pointed out that communicative language teaching is best described as an approach rather than a method. Widdowson (1990: 159) explained that

The communicative approach concentrates on getting learners to do things with language, to express concepts and to carry out communicative acts of various kinds. The content of a language course is now defined not in terms of forms, words and sentence patterns, but in terms of the concepts, or notions, which such forms are used to express, and the communicative functions which they are used to perform.

Richards and Rodgers (1986: 49) stated that the theory of teaching underlying the "Communicative Approach is holistic rather than behaviouristic. It ends up as communication, which implies knowledge of the grammatical system as well as

performance”. Aqel (2006) considered that the goal of this approach is to prepare students for “meaningful communication, where errors are tolerated”.

Lantolf (2000: 12-13) identified the communicative methodology and constructivist theory of learning as “activity theories”. This requires teachers and learners to interact with each other. According to this theory, people build up their knowledge through experience. In addition, in the communicative approach, the teacher is not the centre of all classroom activities since the focus is mainly directed towards the learners.

## 2.3 Communicative Language Teaching (CLT), Communicative Competence (CC)

### 2.3.1 Communicative Competence

Savignon (1997: 272) referred to communicative competence as “functional language proficiency; the expression, interpretation, and negotiation of meaning involving interaction between two or more persons belonging to the same (or a different) speech community”. In addition, she also specified the elements of communicative competence as follows: 1) a focus on meaning discussed between two learners; 2) communicative competence takes place in both written and spoken language; 3) communicative competence particularly exists in context (Communication occurs in unlimited situations, and achieves success depending on the learner’s knowledge); 4) competence and performance are distinct, in that the former is the ability to use a language whereas performance refers to that the practice of that ability and 5) it is based on the interaction between people (Savignon, 1997: 14-15).

These elements had already been foreshadowed by studies and findings of other experts in the field. For instance, in his analysis of students’ behaviour and teachers’ roles, Piaget (1963) referred to the students’ need to create a learning community to support their learning, both at home and at school. The role of the teacher is to allow students to think, work and focus on what they are learning by scaffolding them. Vygotsky (1978) also stressed social interaction as crucial to success in learning. Students learn more in collaboration with parents, friends and others than they can manage by themselves (Lantolf and Appel, 1994; Lantolf, 2000).

### 2.3.2 Communicative Language Teaching: Principles and Practice

An important idea in CLT is that people learn language through trial and error. Fluency and the use of acceptable language are the main aims, with accuracy being examined not in



isolation but in context. Learners are encouraged to communicate with others through pair or group work. The teacher does not determine the language the students use. The communicative approach supports students in engaging with the L2 in different environments. The main aim of the CLT approach is to focus on meaning, and not to improve forms. In learning a foreign language from the CLT point of view, focusing on communicative competence should be utilised. The communicative approach has been characterised as an extensive teaching method. Consequently, it is usually identified in terms of a list of general attributes. Littlewood (2013: 16) emphasised that the notion of CLT as a combination of ideas and practices corresponds to “early conceptions of globalisation and modernisation as unidirectional processes in which ideas and forms are transmitted from centre to periphery”. Hall (2011: 93), on the other hand, mentioned that CLT in terms of a paradigm shift, as “a change in thinking about the goals and processes of interpretations of how this might be realised in practice”.

Nunan (1992) listed five features of communicative learning teaching. These are: 1) learning through interaction in the L2; 2) authentic texts in the learning situation; 3) encouraging learners to concentrate on both the language and learning management procedures; 4) the enhancement of the learner’s own personal experience as an important element contributing to classroom learning and 5) linking language learning inside the classroom with language learning activities outside the classroom.

Many advocates of the communicative approach, particularly those who encourage students to develop their communicative competence in practical and usable contexts, have accepted Nunan’s description. A communicative environment often involves pair or group work in which participants are required to discuss and work together.

The difference between CLT and traditional teaching methods such as the GTM and ALM methods is that the CLT approach mainly focuses not on the structure of language, but rather on its communicative function (Littlewood, 1981). That is, the main goal of teaching and learning a language is to improve students’ communicative competence (Li, 1998). Littlewood (2011) explained that mastery of the grammatical rules and vocabulary of the L2 (linguistic competence) is considered to be the way to achieve communicative ability. With regard to CLT, applied linguists have focused on a shift from the language itself to communication by implementing CLT activities such as pair/group work. As shown in Table 2.1, Brown (2000) compared CLT to the traditional grammar-translation method, providing

his own definition of CLT but borrowing the definition of the GTM from Prator and Celce-Murcia (1979), as cited in Brown (2000: 266-267).

Table 2.1: Grammar Translation Characteristics Compared to CLT

Grammar-Translation Method	Communicative Language Teaching
Most vocabulary is taught as lists of isolated words	Focus is on all forms of communicative competence, not just grammatical and linguistic competence
Elaborate explanations of grammar are given	Communicative language forms enabling learner to accomplish communicative objectives are central
Grammar provides compound word rules, focusing on form and word inflection	Fluency and accuracy are complementary to communicative techniques
Texts are merely exercises in grammatical analysis	Students use language productively and receptively in unrehearsed contexts

From: Prator and Celce-Murcia, (1979: 15), as cited in Brown (2000: 266-267).

It is accepted that there are two versions of CLT: a weak version and a strong version (Holliday, 1994). The main difference between the two versions of CLT is the focus on communication and meaning, or the focus on both meaning and form. The strong version involves task-based language teaching. The term ‘task’ was first used in applied linguistics during the 1980s and has two foci: 1) as an aspect of research methodology used in (SLA) at the beginning of the 1980s, and 2) as a concept used in the L2 curriculum design in the mid-1980s (Crookes and Gass 1993). The strong version focuses on learning the way in which the language works in discourse, not in language practice. Learners work together and help each other solve language problems through communicative tasks. Since the purpose of the strong version of CLT is not to practise language forms, the teacher does not monitor group or pair work. When students are able to communicate and generate useful assumptions about the language, they become communicative (Holliday, 1994). (P: 14) The weak version originated in the form of the functional-notional approach. This approach was based on communicative

functions, which are different purposes for which a learner may need to use language for communication (such as apologising, making requests, greetings, promising, and so on) and notions (such as time, one year ago, last month; and quantity: few, many, much, and so on) that a learner may need to know in order to understand the ways in which grammatical forms may be used to express the functions appropriately (Canale and Swain 1980). As a teaching method, the weak version of CLT has three levels: approach, design and procedure. The teacher plays a more dominant role, using tasks such as dialogue and drills, with communicative activities controlled by the teacher (Mekhafi and Ramani, 2011).

It is evident that there are different interpretations of CLT, but researchers are in agreement about certain common characteristics. According to Yoon and Hirvela (2004: 6), “Language cannot be learned through synthetic units such as grammar, functions, or notions in a discrete and linear way, nor can it be learned separate from language use” Perhaps this was stated more succinctly by Larsen-Freeman (1986: 132), who described the main feature of CLT as “almost everything that is done is done with a communicative competence”. Drawing on previous research, Li (2001: 679) also described the characteristics of the CLT as follows: 1) its main goal is communicative functions; 2) its focus is on meaningful tasks, where teaching grammar and vocabulary are ignored; 3) it attempts to provide tasks for a target group of learners using authentic situations; 4) group activities abound and 5) the learning environment is safe.

Most researchers agree that there is no single method or syllabus when using the CLT approach. In accordance with these different features, the current focus is on taking a closer look at the recipients of such methods – the learners – and analysing these elements’ effectiveness in terms of to their individual and collective contexts.

## 2.4 Focus on Form’ vs ‘Focus on Forms

There have been numerous opinions regarding the best approach to teaching English as a foreign language. Two teaching pedagogies that exemplify this are ‘focus on form’ and ‘focus on forms’. “These two extremes have been encapsulated by Long’s (1988, 1991) proposal that grammar instruction may be of two types: ‘focus on form’ and ‘focus on forms’ (Sheen, 2003:1). In his paper, Honda (2004) made it clear that various researchers have different views of these two approaches, and thus established that his paper was based on the two methods defined by Sheen (2003).

“The former refers to drawing ‘...students’ attention to linguistic elements as they arise incidentally in lesson whose overriding focus is on meaning or communication.’ (Long, 1991: 45-6). The latter is equated with the traditional teaching of discrete points of grammar in separate lessons, and as such included the approach advocated by Dekeyser (1998)” (Sheen, 2003:1).

In his paper entitled, “The Implementation of Communicative Focus-on-Form Activities in EFL: Young Adolescents’ Initial Perceptions and Classroom Issues in Japan”, Honda (2004: 41) attempted to discuss, “...the issues regarding Focus on Form, focusing on children specifically 12 to 15”. He also discussed the ‘explicit and implicit in terms of teaching in Japan.’ He collated the relationship of the two methods, Focus on Form and Focus on Forms, as “...the indispensability of attention and noticing in language acquisition, the motivational factor, and the teachers’ important roles as an input resource regarding their TL use” (Honda, 2004: 33).

The first method, which is ‘focus on form,’ originates from the idea that learning occurs via exposure to natural interactions as introduced the environment, interaction, and so on. In this approach, it is believed that a language learner best acquires the language through imitation. This means that the focus is more on practical usage.

The latter, ‘focus on forms’ reverses the criteria of the former method. It is more focused on studying grammatical rules and forms, and less on the application of the target language. Moreover, this method posits a formal and instructive way of learning the target language. In this way, learners will be oriented in a coherent and academic way. Learners will be adept in the technicalities, terminologies, and rules of grammar of the target language. The springboard will not only focus on communicative activities, which are most likely non-interactive, but also on abstract ideas that are related to non-communicative activities. In general, this method entails an accurate and knowledgeable use of the target language.

This also involves the pedagogy of teachers. This method also addresses how efficient the language teachers are in teaching the technicalities of the English language if they rarely use it in class.

Honda (2004) discussed the issue that, at some point, the teacher may not necessarily be fluent in the foreign language, because usage is less important in the ‘focus on forms’ method. As Honda (2004) stated:

“For non-native teachers, however, there is no doubt that teaching in the TL is challenging (Medgyes, 1994). Medgyes (1994: 33) regards the “linguistic deficit” as the “dark side of being a non-native” whereas Franklin’s study investigating Scottish secondary school teachers’ TL” Medgyes (1994: 2) is one of the four categorized reasons for not using it. In fact, a national survey conducted in the U.S. revealed that just over a fifth of secondary school teacher respondents used the TL most (75 % to 100%) of the time ... (Honda, 2004: 38).

Finally, this method will only be successful depending on the capacity, knowledge, environment and passion of the language learner.

Moreover, there are other problems that arise in the ‘Focus on Forms’ method, not just in the case of the facilitator, but also with regard to the language learner. Because the key informants of this research are children aging from age 12 to 15, factors such as their capability to listen for a given duration, their motivation, their attention range and the actual utilisation of language are considered to be problematic if this method is to be used for this age group. Some of the issues were discussed in Honda’s paper (2004); the first is the difficulty of addressing the learners in an interactive manner. This method restricts the language learner because the technicalities and theories involved in learning a new language are only helpful to a limited extent.

Secondly, what is improbable, especially if the children are just beginning to learn the foreign language. The attention that these children pay to learning grammar is not reinforced by their actual utilisation of the language. Their level of motivation and attention when learning the language might deteriorate. So, how will teaching the technicalities maintain the attention span of a child as an ordinary language learner? This is just one of the questions that Honda tried to convey in his research; in the latter part of his Chapter I, he discussed some of his suggestions.

Thirdly, this method tries to train the learner both with regard to form and meaning. At some point, this could be a good thing, at least for advanced learners; however, this could be difficult for beginners. They may feel too intimidated to mingle using the language unless the

form and meaning are fully understood. In fact, attitude has a great impact on learning a new language, and may thus affect the progress of the students at beginner levels.

With regard to the positive effects of the ‘focus on forms’, as expected, children tend to be more knowledgeable about and adept with the language’s technicalities. Harley’s (1998) study of the effect of Focus on Forms in French children’s acquisition reveals that the children who experience this kind of instruction “made significant, lasting improvement in choosing an appropriate article for familiar vocabulary” (Honda, 2004: 33). As Honda (2004) put it, “instructional activities can induce ‘item learning’ rather than ‘system learning’ of children. Their apprehension of new terms and sentence formulation are faster than the students from ‘Focus on form’ who are used in the more communicative way of learning the target language”.

In conclusion, Honda (2004: 41) suggested that, in order to be able to address the shortcomings of the ‘Focus on Forms’ method, “communicative activities need to be designed to focus students’ attention on a particular feature and must be mainly conducted in the target language. The activities should also intrinsically motivate the students in order that they are more alert”.

In addition, Honda reiterated the importance of the inclusion of interesting activities in class discussions of language in the ‘focus on forms’ method. Furthermore, the various tasks must allow the students to be fully focused. They must capture their attention for the duration of the class so as not to shift their focus or the integrated method of the overall communicative themes.

Honda inadvertently used hindsight and suggested that to solve the shortcoming of the ‘focus on forms’ method inadvertently suggests that ‘focus on form’ and ‘focus on forms’ pedagogy of teaching must be combined for better language learning. Language learning is not just for students, but for the teachers too. In this way, the target language is mandatorily utilised by the language teachers.

## 2.5 Independent Learning and Learner Autonomy

Rogers (1969; 1983) presented an analysis of humanistic education, in which learners can learn by themselves because caring, trust, support and guidance are provided. Encouraging

learners to learn independently gives them an opportunity to take responsibility and allows them to become self-reliant, self-motivated and life-long learners. Rogers (1969: 9) referred to independent learning as an approach that “produces self-reliant learners” who are capable of controlling their own decisions. He used various terms in this regard, such as self-reliant, self-determined, self-initiated learning, self-directed, non-directional, experiential learning, self-chosen assignments, self-assurance, self-confidence, self-evaluation, self-criticism, self-improvement and self-discipline. Encouraging learners to learn independently is a step towards them becoming autonomous learners.

Educationists’ ideas overlap when it comes to discussing learner autonomy. Cotterall (1995: 195) summarised such overlaps as “the extent to which learners demonstrate the ability to use a set of tactics for taking control of their learning”. Meanwhile, Maslow (1970: 161) described their characteristics as “self-decision, self-government, being an active, responsible, self-disciplined, deciding agent rather than a pawn, or helplessly determined by others, being strong rather than weak”. Freire (1998: 98) emphasised autonomy as a “process of becoming oneself”. Benson (1997: 29) referred to learner autonomy as implying “recognition of the rights of learners within educational systems”. Freire (1998) considered it to be an ethical imperative that must be supported by both teachers and the curriculum.

Learners are encouraged to choose learning programmes, instruction methods and the style of assessment. In line with this, Macaro (1997) pointed out that teachers should be aware that an autonomous learning programme entails a shift in classroom procedures, and Cotterall (2000) remarked that many language teachers have shown interest in incorporating the principles of learner autonomy in their classroom practice.

Jones (2007) argued that teachers can develop learners’ autonomy by encouraging them to choose the classroom learning activities and tasks themselves.

## 2.6 Components of EFL

The components of EFL delivery include the curriculum, textbooks and other materials, testing and assessment, and teacher training. A curriculum is defined by scholars such as Yalden (1983), Richards (2001) and White (2003) as usually specifying the aims and objectives of a course or a programme. It also specifies the content chosen to fulfil those aims, how the content is organised, and what kind of evaluation is put in place to measure whether the aims and objectives have been achieved. Based on the goals and objectives of the curriculum, suitable textbook and materials are then chosen.

Textbooks and prepared materials are considered essential elements of language input and classroom language practice (Richards, 2001). Ellis (1992: 224) pointed out that “one way of viewing language teaching materials is as devices for implementing a syllabus”, and Richards (2001) added that good materials are a pre-requisite for the success of a curriculum.

The third EFL component is testing and assessment. This involves the “measurement of the ability of a person or the quality or success of a teaching course” (Richards et al., 1992: 23). It needs to be integrated with the curriculum, textbook and materials for the programme to be a success. Brown (1987) stated that an achievement test is limited to particular material covered in the curriculum within a specific time. Gipps (1994) added that achievement tests measure students' ability to remember and apply information that is learnt routinely. She believed tests should measure understanding by asking students to use the knowledge they have instead of just recalling it. For example, tests should ask students to use their knowledge to solve a problem or to apply their knowledge in a new context. Nation (1996) argued about the extent to which the form of the questions in an achievement test should match the type of activities done in the classroom. This argument favours a slightly different way of formulating questions based on the need to help learners transfer what they have learned to new situations. Assessments can determine what to teach and how to teach, resulting in teachers teaching to the test.

Thus, “classroom activity is restricted to test preparation” and “educational change is limited by the power of the assessment machinery” (Cameron, 2001: 216). Adding an assessment procedure is necessary to provide feedback to teachers and learners who often have a difficult time obtaining feedback.

Nation (1996) asserted that, unlike testing, assessment is a way of helping the learner to make use of the course, and he noted that this entails the careful observation of the learner. He also remarked that assessment can lead to changes being made to a course in order to achieve better results. Assessment also needs to specify who the learners are, whether they are children or adults, and to determine their present knowledge as well as their needs and interests. According to Gipps (1994), standards should be set in educational assessments in order to evaluate pupils' performance and to encourage them to think, rather than to simply choose from alternatives or recall information. For example, assessment can measure performance using concrete tasks that are within the ability of the pupil. For Gipps (1994),



assessment helps us to find out more about the learner's progress than does a mere test. What we need to know is that students have been taught not the actual items in the test, but the skills and knowledge measured by the test; that is, that the students have been taught the construct, not just how to answer the items (Gipps, 1994).

“Compared to testing, assessment is more comprehensive and may include tests, interviews, observation or questionnaires to assess the student’s ability. A test is given to measure the student’s ability at a certain time, but assessment is on-going throughout the year. In both cases, the aim is to evaluate a student’s progress, whether a certain method or technique is working, or how to develop a course to help the student do better”. Savignon (1997: 210) defined a test as a “sample of behaviour”. On the basis of the observed performance elicited in a test, inferences are made about the more general underlying competence of an individual to perform similar or related tasks.

The fourth component of EFL is teacher training. In order to use the textbook and materials and to conduct testing and assessment in the best possible way, teacher training programmes are required (Kreeft 1997; Glatthomet et al., 2006). In addition to pedagogical knowledge, teachers need to be fluent speakers of English. According to Richards (2006: 14) CLT aims to promote learners’ development of fluency in language use. Richards (2006: 14) defines fluency as “natural language use occurring when a speaker engages in meaningful interaction and maintains comprehensible and ongoing communication despite limitations in his or her communicative competence”. Richards (2006: 14) adds that activities that help learners to develop their fluency in language use are those in which they “must negotiate meaning, use communication strategies, correct misunderstandings, and work to avoid communication breakdowns” (Richards, 2006: 14).

## 2.7 The Teachers’ Role in the CLT Classroom and the Effectiveness of Their Approaches

The successful implementation of CLT activities depends on the teacher implementing this approach. The successful implementation of CLT in real teaching contexts depends heavily on teacher-related factors, especially in EFL countries (Choi, 2000; Liming, 2001).

It is emphasised that teachers with high levels of fluency and oral ability can encourage and develop the learner’s interest in participating in communicative activities. In EFL contexts like Libya, where there is no English input outside the classroom, the main attention is directed towards the teacher’s role as a knowledge provider.

In connection with the teachers' tasks and characteristics, Richards and Rodgers (2001) elaborated on the approaches teachers could utilise to enhance their role in the CLT classroom.

Firstly, teachers need to be analysts of the learning style and understand its goals. They need to provide instruction in the form of group or individual work. Secondly, teachers should be effective counsellors and communicators in CLT activities, such as paraphrasing and giving confirmation and feedback to encourage learners to learn the language effectively. Thirdly, as group process managers, teachers are responsible for guiding, controlling and creating the appropriate conditions for better communication activities (Richards and Rodgers, 2001).

On the other hand, some scholars distinguish between methods, approaches and techniques. For instance, Antony (1963) defined an approach as a group of principles in language and language teaching and learning, whereas a method is the manner in which material is introduced, and a technique concerns the tool used to implement a method. This means that the approach will determine the method, which will then determine the techniques used to achieve the goals.

Richards and Rodgers (2001) revised Antony's framework by introducing the term 'design' instead of 'method' to refer to the content used, the syllabus, the roles of learners and teachers, and instructional materials. They use the term 'procedure' to refer to all of the activities, exercises and strategies teachers use in the classroom.

Kumaravadivelu (2006) suggested three categories of methods: language-centred, learner-centred and learning-centred. Richards and Rodgers (2001), on the other hand, divided methods into approaches and methods previously used and current communicative approaches. However, these categories do not relate to the actual characteristics of the methods. For example, their categorisation does not indicate how methods share or do not share specific characteristics. Similarly, Widdowson (1990) categorised methods as 'structural' or 'communicative'.

It appears that Kumaravadivelu's (2006) categorisation of methods is the best, as distinctions between categories are specified. Any method can fit into one of these three categories, and its focuses, principles and classroom procedures can be identified.

The different methods are now examined, referring to them in the order in which they were proposed by linguists. Arguably, every method can be seen as an attempt to overcome the shortcomings of the preceding ones (Howatt and Widdowson, 2004).

## 2.8 Classroom Interaction

It is assumed in CLT that interaction with other speakers is what leads to second language acquisition. That is, interaction between learners and with the teacher leads to development. This section defines the term 'classroom interaction' and investigates patterns of classroom interaction as well as the major factors affecting its nature. Finally, the impact of classroom interaction on language learning is explored.

It is difficult to define classroom interaction precisely, as it takes a variety of forms.

Not surprisingly, scholars have offered different definitions. For example, Johnson (1994) considered classroom interaction to include explicit behaviour and language used in the classroom, which determines to a certain extent the students' learning opportunities and use of the target language. An interaction can also be defined as “an exchange containing either a complete initiation-response feedback/follow-up (IRF) sequence, as suggested by Sinclair and Coulthard (1975), or a partial initiation-response (IR)” (Alexander, 2000: 397). Ellis (1992) described the term ‘interaction’ in the context of second language learning as “the process through which learners are exposed to the target language and therefore how different language samples become available for learners to use in the classroom in an interactive way”. Thus, classroom interaction can be seen to refer to any interaction between the teacher and learners and amongst learners themselves.

### 2.8.1 Interaction and Participant Organisation

Watanabe and Swain (2007) referred to the significant connection between classroom interaction and participant organisation. Theoretically, implementing pair and group work is supported by two major theories of language learning: psycholinguistic theory, based on the work of Long (1990), and socio-cultural theory derived from the work of Vygotsky (1978). Both theories emphasise the importance of interaction in pairs and groups for learning (Storch, 2007). Group work, as many researchers recognise, enables a relaxed environment for learners to be created by removing their anxiety and shyness about speaking in front of

the class (Foster, 1998). Researchers have also found that group work offers more opportunities for learners to interact orally, perform more self-repair, and exchange explanations (Brumfit, 1984; Pica and Doughty, 1985; Gutierrez, 2008). However, in the Libyan context, pair or group work rarely occurs. Learners almost always sit silently in rows of chairs facing the board and work individually. Interaction is quite minimal, in contrast with existing methods that are simple enough to execute yet are not utilised in this part of the world.

To understand the suggested process, an overview of these methods follows.

### 2.8.2 Classroom Interaction Patterns

Van Lier (1988) argued that classroom interaction does not happen randomly, but has distinct patterns. In their study of traditional UK school classrooms, Sinclair and Coulthard (1975) found that teachers and learners usually follow three steps in sequence: initiation, response and feedback (IRF). In this chain, the teacher initiates a question, one of the learners answers, and the teacher gives feedback such as an assessment, a correction or a comment before initiating the next question, and so on (Ur, 1996). Students need to answer the question, and the teacher may accept or decline the learner's answer with "Good", "That's right", or "No, that's not right" (Hall and Walsh, 2002). Such interaction patterns are observed to have high priority in traditional patterns of classroom interaction (Nunan, 1987). These interactions are characterised by fixed patterns such as asking questions, instructing, correcting students' mistakes and the teacher's control over the topic and the pupils' contributions. One merit of the IRF pattern is that learners receive immediate feedback after the teacher checks the students' comprehension (Candlin and Mercer, 2001).

With regard to IRF patterns, Markee (2000: 71) emphasised that "speech exchange is characterised by unequal power relationships". In this case, the teacher controls the class, since s/he decides who will participate, when learners can take turns, how much they can contribute, and whether or not their contributions are deemed worthy and appropriate (Hall and Walsh, 2002).

The prominence of IRF can be considered in conjunction with the teacher's control of the class. "The teacher does all the initiating and closing and students' work is done exclusively in the response slot. The IRF format, therefore, discourages the students' initiation and repair work" (Candlin and Mercer, 2001: 95).

The amount of learner interaction in the classroom may be determined by the degree of learner control over the talk. Cathcard (1986) pointed out that, if learners control talk in the classroom, a variety of communicative acts and syntactic structures are observed, such as role playing, games and storytelling. On the other hand, if the teacher controls the talk, learners engage in shorter utterances. Thus, it is important to consider the effect of task types on learner interaction, as this shows how tasks based on language games, for instance, can influence the amount of interaction among learners.

Accordingly, Pica et al. (1993) suggested that problem-solving, decision-making and opinion exchange tasks are less restrictive than are jigsaw and information-gap tasks. They give more opportunities for learners to deal with the task in different ways. Prabhu (1987) used three main task types in a study in Bangalore: information-gap, reasoning-gap and opinion-gap tasks. Nunan (1989) also categorised tasks into two types: communicative and non-communicative tasks. Communicative tasks are the most successful in promoting the use of the language for communication, rather than leading learners to concentrate on grammatical rules (Loschky and Bley-Vroman, 1993). However, other researchers have pointed out that no single type of task has precedence over others. Every type of task may contribute to language acquisition in its own way.

## 2.9 Teacher Feedback

Teacher feedback is another important element of classroom interaction. It not only provides information to students, but is also used to undertake information given by students and to provide comments on their responses (Tusi, 1995). However, Nassaji and Wells (2000) claimed that, by giving feedback, the teacher can create a greater opportunity for the participation of learners. Feedback can encourage peers to respond to each other's performance by asking for their opinions (Smith and Higgins, 2006).

Examining types of feedback, Hardman et al. (2003) investigated the nature of classroom interaction in England and found that acceptance is the most important type of feedback given to pupils' answers, accounting on average for 57% of instances. Thanking learners for right answers scores 21%, probing for another answer represents 14%, whereas criticism attains 7%.

The type of feedback given affects student learning. Negative feedback may lead to students become uninterested and reluctant to work, and could lead to failure. However, positive feedback gives learners motivation to participate effectively, and creates a warm social environment in the classroom (Tusi, 1995).

Correcting errors and giving feedback during learning sessions is important to help students understand the lesson. In language teaching, corrections and feedback are vital to learners' linguistic development.

In chapter seven of her book *Input, Interaction and Corrective Feedback in L2 Learning*, Allison Mackey (2012) dissected Leeman's (2007) take on correcting errors and feedback. Error correction is defined by Leeman (2007) as an educational activity, which provides feedback for learner's errors (as cited by Mackey, 2012). Feedback is defined in Mackey's book as a reaction to a learner's remark. It has two mechanisms, which include positive or negative feedback.

Positive feedback confirms successful communication, while negative feedback confirms that the way in which communication has been carried out has failed. These procedures are usually employed depending on the context of the learner's utterance. In the case of an incorrect statement, a teacher usually makes an error correction, followed by evidence to clarify and correct the incorrect statement.

Error correction and feedback may sound simple, but they are quite complicated. In their study, Lyster and Ranta (1997) discovered that different types of corrective feedback generated different learning results. For example, the elicitation type of corrective feedback, in which the teacher directly elicits the correct form via the question, turned out to be a much better way of corrective feedback as it resulted in a high percentage of student-generated repair. Lyster and Ranta's (1997) study revealed that learners learned from their mistakes if the teacher did not provide the correct form immediately and the students thought about and

reformulated their incorrect languages instead. Aside from the elicitation type of corrective learning, Lyster and Ranta's (1997) study also pointed out clarification requests and metalinguistic feedback as being amongst the best approaches to error correction (Tedick and Gortari, 1998).

In error correction, teachers have to have knowledge about the reason for the error to know the level of guidance that needs to be applied to certain students ("Error Correction 1"). For instance, there are cases in which an error is only a slip of the tongue, or as a result of a random guess, simply because the student is not yet knowledgeable about the topic. By contrast, there are other instances in which the error has been committed repeatedly. With regard to former case, no serious error correction is needed; in the latter case, there is no doubt that the teacher needs to employ a different methodology for the student to finally mitigate or eradicate his/her linguistic errors.

The first step in error correction is making the student understand why the mistake is an error and why it needs to be corrected ("Error Correction in the ESL Classroom"). The teacher must be able to emphasise that the error leads to miscommunication. Citing real life examples is recommended so that students can relate to them and be able to internalise the importance of learning English correctly. Thus, they will be motivated to be grammatically and linguistically correct (Sheen, 2007).

The second step, which is as important as the first, is training students and providing them with regular exercises. There is truth to the adage that experience is the best teacher. Students can only truly learn if they experience correction of errors on a regular basis. Games, team activities and other interactive learning strategies can be inculcated in the lesson plan for a more engaging learning process.

Consistent monitoring is also essential. On occasion teachers must examine the progress of the students, discuss recurring errors, and identify how the final removal thereof to remove finally them. In this way, it is ensured that all students will truly and comprehensibly learn the importance of using correct language in their everyday lives.

## 2.10 Student Talk

Student talk is considered to be a crucial component of classroom interaction. It refers to learners' responses in the classroom. Hardman et al. (2003) investigated the most common patterns of learner talk in interactive class teaching in England. They found that when pupils speak, it is to answer a question 86% of the time. The answer is usually predetermined to be right or wrong (Dillon, 1994).

The length of student talk is also used as a criterion in assessing the learners' involvement in classroom interaction. The findings obtained by Pontefract and Hardman (2005) indicated that more than half of both choral and individual responses are only one word long. This could be because of a lack of opportunity to respond at length to teacher initiations.

The patterns of interaction and lengths of learner utterances are governed by three factors:

1. The extent to which the teacher manages class talk;
2. The organisation of participants;
3. The nature of the task.

In a teacher-centred class, for instance, the teacher often gives one right answer to all students but, in a learner-centred class, there could be a different right answer for each learner (Dillon, 1994). If learners are usually limited to the role of responding, then fewer meaningful learning interaction opportunities are available (Tusi, 1995). However, the value of student talk in the classroom is increasingly recognised in language learning, as are socio-cultural factors (Pica et al., 1987). Teaching methods increasingly emphasise the importance of students' oral participation. For instance, task-based teaching methods, as discussed below, encourage group and pair work.



## 2.11 Tasks and Pair or Group Work

The learners' talk in the classroom determines the amount of their interaction in the classroom. However, the more the teacher controls the talk, the less the learners talk. Thus, it is important to define the task types and their effect on learners' interactions. Tasks were defined with reference to the activities performed in the language classroom (Nunan, 1989; Kumaravadivelu, 1993; Pica et al., 1993). Long's (1990) definition of task is probably the most general. He writes, "... by task is meant the hundred and one things people do in everyday life, at work, at play, and in between" (Long, 1985: 89). Nunan's (1989) definition may be considered more specific in that it is geared to the instructional role of the task in the realm of the L2 classroom. He defines task as "a piece of classroom work which involves learners in comprehending, manipulating, producing or interacting in the target language while their attention is principally focused on meaning rather than form" (Nunan, 1989: 10).

The lack of agreement on one definition of a task is because each researcher conceives this notion in relation to his/her beliefs about the nature of language teaching and learning (Kumaravadivelu, 1993). However, even though task has been defined in different ways, there is some overlap in the definitions offered. A prevailing agreement among applied linguists points to the fact that a classroom activity needs to be crafted minimally, pertain to a task having some data, plus one or more related activities or procedures (Long, 1990; Nunan, 1989). According to Nunan (1989), a task also has – either explicitly or implicitly – goals, roles of the learner and the teacher, and the arrangements of the participants in the task. He pointed out that these three components of a task are, in most cases, implicit and can be determined by observing the actual teacher and learner behaviour when the task is implemented.

The last point I would like to raise concerning the task is that advocates of CLT stress that goals should not be determined in terms of grammatical structures. Some researchers call for the specification of goals in behavioural terms – that is, what the learner is expected to be able to do with language. For instance, Long and Crookes (1992) defined goals in terms of the target tasks the learner is preparing to undertake in the real world, such as buying a train ticket, renting an apartment and taking lecture notes. Others have argued that tasks can serve to reach the goals of a functional/notional syllabus. Still other researchers argue for the specification of the content of learning in problem-solving terms (Prabhu, 1987). This leads us to enquire whether the instructional goals as defined by Libyan authors and teachers are specified in structural, functional or behavioural terms.

Pair and group work activities allow effective classroom interaction and increase the learners' participation (Macaro, 1997; Huda, 1999; Holliday, 2005; Iddings, 2006; Jones, 2007). Macaro (1997) and Huda (1999) both remarked that pair or group work activities give greater opportunities to learners to practise the L2 in different contexts. Therefore, role-playing, problem-solving activities and games are often implemented when teaching a foreign language (Freeman, 2000; Rico, 2008). Pair and group work activities form part of learner-centred teaching since learners are encouraged in their own learning that can exist outside any teacher-controlled environment (Brandes and Ginnis, 1986).

Ellis (2003) stated that applying group work in language lessons could offer the opportunity to take account of learners' individual differences. He went on to develop the idea that the learners' abilities to work together effectively is a main factor in the successful implementation of these activities (Ellis, 2003). He proposed the following strategies in this regard: 1) convince learners of the importance of the task; 2) stress the importance of the learner's role; 3) probe group selection; 4) choose appropriate seating arrangements to make it easier to communicate; 5) train learners in the strategies required for effective collaboration; 6) fix groups' permanent make-up and cohesion and 7) involve teachers in modelling collaboration, observing the students' performance, and assisting where necessary (Ellis, 2003: 271).

The appropriate selection of groups can enhance active participation among students. Livingstone and Lynch (2000) asserted that proper group selection leads to the successful implementation of group work. They added that when learners are allowed to choose their own group members, this develops their learning style.

## 2.12 Teacher Beliefs

The teacher's beliefs are formulated over time and are influenced by their experiences as students, teaching practice, personal factors and principles learned in studying various approaches and methods (Richards and Lockhart, 2005). This section considers the teacher's beliefs in relation to their cultural context and how these might affect interaction in the classroom.

According to Richards and Lockhart (2005), the way teachers themselves are taught is the main source of their beliefs. For example, loyalty to traditional methods such as the grammar

translation and audio-lingual methods (Orafi, 2008) may indicate this. Teachers believe that imitation, repetition and memorisation are suitable, reliable and effective as a means of language learning. They are convinced that students should memorise a large number of vocabulary and grammar rules, and only then might they consider offering different language activities. Consequently, teachers influenced by such beliefs may feel foolish when playing games or making jokes in front of their students. Orafi (2008) reported that teachers control the talk and patterns of classroom interactions. They usually ask questions and choose students to answer. Other classroom activities are not utilised, despite the fact that the new curriculum assigned in 2000 requires students to carry out activities in pairs or groups. Some of the teachers interviewed by Orafi (2008) declared that allowing the students to work together was a waste of time.

#### 2.12.1 Teachers' Beliefs and Classroom Practices Regarding CLT

Research findings emphasise that teachers' beliefs have an influence on classroom practice. Smith (1996), Woods (1996) and Borg (1998; 1999) have explained how teachers' beliefs affect their classroom behaviour and decision making.

Smith (1996) carried out a qualitative study investigating the decision-making processes of nine ESL teachers who attended public adult education courses in Canada. They had taken undergraduate teacher-training courses in TESL and had 8-13 weeks of teaching experience. Four consecutive two-hour classes taught by each teacher were videotaped, and field notes were written during the observation of their lessons. After the classes, the teachers watched the videos and commented on what had occurred and what decisions led to the events observed. Smith found that there was high internal consistency between individual beliefs and practices, and concluded that the way that the teachers eclectically blended theoretical ideas with practical needs was based on their individual beliefs and experiences. It is interesting that, even though the teachers used the same communicative tasks, the underlying purpose differed according to each teacher's beliefs; some used them for grammar practice, and others used them for authentic communicative practice.

Borg (1998; 1999) conducted a case study on the grammar classes of four experienced teachers at an EFL school in Malta. He investigated the teachers' use of grammatical terminology, data were collected from interviews, and 15 hours of classroom observations with field notes and audio-recordings were gathered over a period of two weeks. Borg found

that decisions made in teaching grammar were influenced by the teachers' attitudes towards language learning, L2 learning, grammar teaching, the students and themselves (Borg 1998). If a teacher is comfortable or uncomfortable with a lesson, it shows in the way he or she teaches it. Such attitudes reveal that teachers' behaviour, decision-making processes and classroom practices are shaped by their underlying approach to teaching. In addition, these studies indicate that teaching practices are also influenced by other factors, such as the classroom context (Smith, 1996; Woods, 1996), as well as by the teacher's own learning and teaching experience (Borg, 1998; 1999).

#### 2.12.2 Learning Experience and Teachers' Beliefs

Empirical research reveals that the beliefs of experienced teachers that underlie their instruction are largely generated by their own experiences of learning (Borg, 1998; 1999). Holt-Reynolds (1992) undertook research regarding pre-service student teachers at an American university, and found that their beliefs about teaching were derived, to a large extent, from their own learning experiences. The participants were three mathematics majors and six English majors who were engaged in a content reading course that was required for teacher certification. Six interviews with each student teacher suggested that "the personal histories of pre-service teachers appear to function as prior knowledge of what 'good' teaching should look, sound, and feel like" (Holt-Reynolds, 1992: 343).

The pre-service teachers had been involved in studying for a number of years, and they had already developed lay beliefs based on experience. Holt-Reynolds argued that it might be quite challenging and difficult to change these lay beliefs. She suggested that teacher education should first acknowledge the power of experience-based beliefs, and then an attempt should be made to foster the professionalisation of those existing beliefs.

Beliefs held by in-service training teachers also tended to reflect their learning experiences. Ellis et al. (2006) conducted interviews with 31 ESL teachers teaching adults in Australian language centres. The participants were categorised according to three groups: 1) native English-speakers with a second language; 2) native English-speaker monolinguals; and 3) non-bilingual native speakers

Ellis (2006) found that, in addition to the language learning experience of the bilingual teachers, their experience of having faced the challenges of immigration, the accompanying identity problems, and raising children in bilingual families could also "lead to the

development of key insights on which teachers appear to draw in framing their approach to learners.”

The impact of learning experiences on teachers’ beliefs may be relevant to both pre- and in-service teacher training. The following section discusses the influence of teacher training courses on teachers’ beliefs.

### 2.12.3 Pre-service Training and Teachers’ Beliefs

Although research suggests that teacher education influences the beliefs of trainees, the nature of this influence differs according to the findings of various studies and for different types of trainees. Bramal et al. (1995) found that student teachers bring experience-based beliefs with them to a teacher education course, and that the older beliefs are changed in various ways during the course. The researchers administered a 26-item seven-point Likert scale questionnaire to 162 students enrolled in a postgraduate certificate of education (PGCE) course at a British university three times: at the beginning of the course in October, after the first experience teaching in schools in December, and at the end of the course in May. Ten students whose beliefs changed a great deal and ten students whose beliefs changed very little during the course were interviewed. The results showed that individual student teachers’ conceptualisations of the teacher training process differed; consequently, their ways of making sense of their training experiences tended to vary. That is to say, the impact of the teacher training programme differed among the individual students.

Anderson and Bird (1995) investigated three student teachers’ learning at a 10-week training course at an American university and identified some common characteristics. Data were collected from participants’ essays, and from conversations between the participants written up after watching three video-recorded lessons in elementary school classrooms. The results showed that the student teachers interpreted each video-recorded lesson through the lens of their own initial images of teaching. The first participant admired the ways in which the teachers on the videotape acted as classroom leaders. The second participant expressed a high regard for teachers who indirectly guided students to think for themselves. The third participant was impressed by the fact that the teachers created interesting experiences in class. Their interpretations of the lessons did not change during the term. Anderson and Bird concluded that the student teachers’ interpretations of their teacher education coursework

differed from those that their instructors had anticipated, because the students were influenced by their experienced-based beliefs.

Almarza (1996) conducted a nine-month longitudinal study of changes in four pre-service trainees' teaching beliefs and practices while they were taking postgraduate certificate of education (PGCE) courses at a British university. She collected data from interviews, classroom observations, stimulated recall, and the students' journals. A specific L2 teaching method was taught in the PGCE courses, and the participants implemented the method in their classrooms during teaching practice. However, although their classroom instruction looked similar, the four participants had different views about language and language learning, which were influenced by their L1. For instance, one participant believed that language is a set of structures and phrases, and another believed that it could be learned through a natural learning process in the classroom, not through controlled practice. Almarza (1996: 70) concluded that "during the teacher education, student teachers progressed differently despite their similar behaviour during teaching practice". She also suggested that teacher educators should legitimise student teachers' previous knowledge in order to minimise the gap between their previous knowledge and the new knowledge that they were expected to acquire.

The three studies reviewed indicate that pre-service teachers' beliefs are somewhat stable: the only change highlighted concerns the beliefs of half of the participants in Bramal et al.'s (1995) study. It is interesting that other studies echo related subject, but on a different level. The participants in Peacock's (2001) study had far more fixed beliefs about language learning. This longitudinal study investigated changes in the beliefs of 146 student teachers over their three-year BA TESL programme in Hong Kong. The results of the Beliefs about Language Learning Inventory (Horwitz, 1988) showed that the students' beliefs about L2 learning were significantly different from those of experienced teachers in only the following three items: learning a foreign language based on learning a lot of new vocabulary, learning a foreign language based on learning a lot of grammatical rules, and that bilingual people are very intelligent. The results also showed that there was little change in the students' beliefs with regard to the three items. Peacock (2001) concluded that the data did not confirm the hypothesis that pre-service TESL courses shape student teachers' beliefs.

To summarise, research into pre-service teacher education suggests that student teachers' prior beliefs are often stable, and these beliefs tend to limit what they can learn from teacher education courses. In addition, what students learn from the courses and how their prior beliefs change often differ individually. This implies that the learning experience is more influential than is experience in pre-service teacher training in terms of shaping teachers' beliefs.

#### 2.12.4 In-service Training and Teachers' Beliefs

As stated above, research suggests that pre-service student teachers' experience-based beliefs tend to limit what they can learn from teacher education courses. However, research into in-service teacher education shows that experienced teachers' beliefs and practices can be changed through their own teaching experiences, including teaching practice.

Richards et al. (1996) examined how five trainee teachers responded to teaching practice experiences in a TESOL teacher-training programme in Hong Kong. The researchers analysed audio-recorded discussion sessions and interviews, and found that the beliefs of the five trainees changed, but not in a homogeneous way. That is, the CLT model of teaching that the programme employed was interpreted in different ways by individual trainees. The authors concluded that trainees deconstruct the CLT method "in the light of their teaching experiences and reconstruct it, drawing on their own beliefs and assumptions about themselves, about teachers, about teaching and about learners" (Richards et al., 1996: 258).

Freeman (1996) as cited by Gee (1990) interpreted in-service trainees' reconstructions of their pedagogical knowledge as enlisting in a new "Discourse [with a capital D]" (Gee 1990). According to Gee, discourse is not just a way of using language, but a way of acting, believing, and doing in the world. Freeman conducted longitudinal research on changes in the practices of four FL teachers studying for a TESOL MA in the United States. Through interviews, observations and document analysis, Freeman found that joining the new discourse (the master's programme) enabled the four teachers to speak about their teaching practice using professional language. By so doing, the teachers could rename their prior teaching experiences. The master's programme allowed the teachers to reshape their prior teaching experience and to construct new practices. Freeman suggested that teacher education has a potentially powerful effect on reshaping in-service teachers' beliefs, in that it socialises them into the new discourse.

Cabaroglu and Roberts (2000) reported on the strong impact of in-service training on teachers' beliefs. Their participants were twenty teachers who attended a postgraduate certificate of education (PGCE) course at a British university. The results showed that the beliefs of only one out of twenty experienced teachers remained unchanged during the 36-week course. These beliefs centred on how they approached methods of teaching and how they were not completely resistant to changing the way they approached learning and teaching. The interviews revealed that the beliefs of the other 19 participants shifted gradually during the course, as it took time for them to reorient what they already knew about dealing with learners' needs and actually addressing those needs accordingly. The process of change involved realising that new beliefs may conflict with or be coherent with prior beliefs, leading to the confirmation of existing beliefs, reconstructing or re-naming existing beliefs, and integrating new beliefs with prior beliefs. Cabaroglu and Roberts (2000) concluded that trainees' beliefs seem to be flexible; their pre-existing beliefs can be reshaped, and the development of beliefs varies greatly among individuals.

In addition to the teachers' learning in formal in-service training, informal learning also impacts on the shape of their beliefs and practices. Crookes and Araraki (1999) interviewed 19 ESL teachers who worked with students from Asia or Europe in the United States. They found that the teachers preferred listening to their colleagues' opinions rather than consulting non-teaching researchers. In this regard, several teachers commented that informal talks between colleagues provided a convenient and useful way to achieve good teaching ideas. They also recognised that experienced teachers were willing to help newcomers. It may be that many teachers learn from their colleagues, find ways to improve their own teaching practice, and reshape their ideas and beliefs based on the success or failure of a new practice. The above studies suggest that teachers can have both formal and informal opportunities to learn about pedagogy, and that experienced teachers' beliefs may be more flexible than those of student teachers. One of the main differences between pre-service and in-service education concerns the teaching trainees' prior experience. In addition to formal in-service training, teachers learn from their colleagues. It appears that both informal and formal training has an impact on the reconstruction of teachers' beliefs about teaching and learning.



### 2.12.5 Contextual Factors and Teachers' Beliefs and Practices

Educational researchers have found that contextual factors influence classroom practices, both directly and indirectly. In a review of sixty-four studies concerning teacher cognition, Borg (2003) reported that teachers' practices are affected by the social, psychological and environmental conditions in the school and the classroom. These factors include parents, principals, colleagues, the classroom, school, society, curriculum and examinations. Borg also mentioned that such factors may hinder the ability of language teachers to adopt practices that reflect their beliefs.

Crookes and Araraki (1999) established that difficult working conditions affect classroom practice. The twenty participants in their study were ESL teachers in an intensive English programme in the western United States, and they had to work approximately 50 hours per week. They had little time to prepare lessons and, consequently, they could not provide more effective pedagogical activities even though they knew that these were available. Crookes and Araraki (1999) concluded that heavy workloads impacted on the teachers' pedagogical choices.

Learners' beliefs also impact on teachers' practices. Schulz (2001) administered a questionnaire to 122 Colombian FL teachers, 607 Colombian FL students, 92 American FL teachers and 824 American FL students. The results revealed that both groups of students emphasised the importance of explicit grammar teaching and corrective feedback in FL learning. The majority of teachers from both countries also agreed that teaching grammar promotes language learning. Schulz (2001: 256) pointed out that, "if teacher behaviours do not mesh with students' expectations, learners' motivation and a teacher's credibility may be diminished". Therefore, teachers may have to modify their teaching practices in the light of CLT, students' expectations

Similarly, Burgess and Etherington (2002) reported that students' characteristics, needs and wishes influence the teacher's classroom actions. They administered a questionnaire to English for Academic Purposes (EAP) teachers working in British university language centres. Qualitative data gained from 48 responses to an open-ended question suggested that the students' preference for grammar instruction influenced the teachers' pedagogical decisions.

In addition to working conditions and the characteristics of students, various other factors influence the teacher's beliefs and practices. Richards and Pennington (1998) investigated five novice EFL teachers' practices through classroom observations, interviews and questionnaires. The teachers had graduated from BA TESOL courses at the City University in Hong Kong and taught at secondary schools. The results indicated that the teachers used their textbooks and rarely provided authentic communicative activities. The constraints on their teaching included large class sizes, the students' low proficiency, a general lack of discipline, examination pressures, the syllabus and the students' resistance to new ways of learning, all of which hindered the use of communicative activities.

As Smith (1996) pointed out, the classroom context includes factors such as the learning styles and preferences of learners, and these tend to have a strong influence on teachers' decisions. To summarise, the class size and characteristics of students, the syllabus and workloads, as well as broader educational conditions such as examination pressures and educational policy, all influence teachers' beliefs and practices.

### 2.13 Research into Problems Concerning CLT Implementation in EFL Contexts

Although a range of EFL countries have adopted CLT, studies have shown that this has turned out to be problematic. This section discusses research that deals with the difficulties faced in the implementation of the CLT approach.

Despite the different views about CLT, its popularity has led policymakers to reform educational institutions and curriculum development systems from being teacher-centred to being learner-centred. Table 2.2 below demonstrates how studies of countries map out the results of certain approaches in understanding teaching methods.

Table 2.2 Review of Research on CLT

Results					
	Teachers' proficiency	Teacher-centeredness	Traditional beliefs	Negative attitude	CLT use
Ghail (1992) UK	n/a	n/a	n/a	Yes	Yes
Powel (1992) UK	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	Yes
Cuban (1993) USA	n/a	Yes	n/a	n/a	Yes
Karavas-Doukas (1996) Greece	Yes	n/a	n/a	Yes	n/a
Li (1998) South Korea	n/a	Yes	Yes	n/a	Yes
Al-Nouh (2008) Kuwait	Yes	Yes	n/a	n/a	Yes
Orafi and Borg (2009) Libya	n/a	Yes	Yes	n/a	Yes
Shiba (2011) Libya	n/a	Yes	Yes	n/a	Yes
Harrison (1996) Oman	n/a	Yes	Yes	n/a	No
Carless (1998) Hong Kong	n/a	n/a	n/a	No	n/a
Richards et al. (2001) Singapore	n/a	n/a	Yes	No	No
Waeytens et al. (2002) Belgium	Yes	n/a	Yes	Yes	n/a
Gao and Watkins (2002) China	n/a	Yes	Yes	Yes	No
Schuh (2004) Midwestern	n/a	Yes	Yes	Yes	No
O'Sullivan (2004) Namibia	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	Yes
Kasanda et al.	n/a	Bo	No	No	Yes

(2005) Namibia					
Nonkukhetkhong et al. (2006) Thailand	n/a	No	no	Yes	yes
Yilmaz (2007) Turkey	n/a	Yes	No	n/a	No
Kalin and Zuljan (2007) Slovenia	n/a	Yes	Yes	Yes	No
Matsau (2007) Lesotho	n/a	No	n/a	Yes	Yes
Heip (2007) Vietnam	n/a	Yes	n/a	Yes	No
Eslami and Fatahi (2008) Iran	Yes	Yes	n/a	Yes	No
Kirkgoz.(2008) Turkey	n/a	Yes	n/a	Yes	No
Yilmaz (2009) Turkey	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	No
Segovia and Hardison (2009) Thailand	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	No
Brown (2009) USA	n/a	Yes	n/a	n/a	No

Teachers' proficiency refers to Teachers' proficiency that affects CLT implementation. Adapted from Shiba (2011).

The studies reflect an uneven implementation of the CLT approach. Both earlier and recent studies reveal evidence of the existence of this situation. Researchers attribute the failure of the implementation of CLT in some contexts to many factors. For instance, Ghaili (1992: 221) explained the lack of curriculum innovation in moving towards learner-centred pedagogy in an English secondary school as being because of an inability “to acknowledge the cultural specificity of pedagogic social relations”.

Brown (2009) attributed EFL teachers' failure to implement the CLT approach to the difference between teachers' and students' perceptions about effective teaching. Yilmaz (2009) reported that the whole education system, including teachers and students, had contributed to the failure of the CLT approach in Turkish secondary schools. Overall,

researchers tend to ascribe the failure to implement the CLT approach to the rejection of Western styles or to a lack of facilities (Burnaby and Sun, 1989; Holliday, 1994; Simpson, 2008; Jansen, 2009; Orafi and Borg, 2009; Yilmaz 2009).

Other studies have shown that there are several types of challenges that hinder the implementation of CLT, including teachers, students, and the instructional contexts (Ahn, 2011). In South Korea, one study found that teachers' limited English proficiency and low confidence in using English as the medium of instruction were major barriers to the implementation of the CLT approach (Ahn, 2011). In another study, teachers were wary of implementing a CLT curriculum as the students were still expected to take standardised tests that were based heavily on the previous grammar-translation methods (Johnson and Golombek, 2010).

It can be concluded that this approach has encountered various challenges and difficulties in both Western and non-Western contexts.

The CLT approach in Western contexts appears questionable for some areas and experts, and the results of several studies ended with this critique which, in turn, mars its full implementation; for example, Ghail (1992) in the UK, Karavas-Doukas (1996) in Greece, Hawkey (2006) in Italy, Pizarro (2007) in Spain, and Kalin and Zuljan (2007) in Slovenia. However, parallel results could also be found in the non-Western context. Li (1998) conducted a qualitative study of the perceived difficulties in using CLT experienced by 18 South Korean EFL secondary teachers who undertook a training programme in Canada. The participants answered a written questionnaire, and 10 were interviewed. Li established that the teachers encountered difficulties in implementing CLT for four reasons: "those caused (a) by the teacher, (b) by the students, (c) by the educational system, and (d) by CLT itself" (Li, 1998: 696). The author argued that these numerous problems discouraged teachers from trying CLT. He also explained that many changes must take place before teachers could be prepared to use CLT in EFL environments, because a serious conflict exists between its requirements and what actually happens in the EFL environment in countries like South Korea. This conflict needs to be resolved in order for CLT to be implemented in EFL teaching (Li, 1998). Some of the types of conflict that need attention, according to Li, are related to educational values and attitudes, grammatical instruction, students' attitudes, teachers' attitudes, pre-service teacher education, and local educational growth. Overall, the

teachers in this study identified more problems than benefits of CLT use in South Korea, indicating the problems with its adoption in at least one EFL environment.

The important findings of Li's (1998) study have implications for the present study. Among the difficulties caused by the educational system, Li reported that all 18 teachers considered class size as one of the principal constraints to implementing CLT. In addition, one teacher explained that class size made it almost impossible to use CLT because of problems with class management, noise, giving individual attention to students, keeping students on task, and lack of space for teachers and students to move around or be organised into groups. Another important difficulty was caused by the teachers' lack of adequate training in implementing the CLT approach. Again, all of Li's 18 participants saw this as one of the main challenges facing their implementation of the CLT approach (Li, 1998). A majority of the teachers also made it clear that they understood CLT in theory but, when it came to practice, they lacked knowledge of the appropriate CLT methodology. Finally, fourteen of the participants reported a lack of time to develop communicative materials, and they gave up using CLT due to lack of training in CLT and a lack of time to create their own communicative activities.

A study conducted by Burnaby and Sun (1989) looked at Chinese teachers' use of Western language teaching methods that aimed to develop communicative competence. The study focused on teachers' perceptions about implementing these ESL/EFL methods (Burnaby and Sun, 1989). Data were obtained from a Canadian/Chinese cooperative programme in English and French language training and cultural orientation in Canada, and an informal study conducted by Sun of the views on Western teaching methods held by Chinese teachers at the tertiary level (Burnaby and Sun, 1989).

Even though the study's setup was Western-based, its application was reflected in non-Western contexts after the training. The findings of this study offer an insight into how Western teaching was used by teachers in their respective classrooms on their return to China. The 24 participants declared that communicative methods were good for students who were planning to go abroad, but not good for other students. These findings imply that communicative methods are deemed useful for students who will live in English-speaking contexts and that this method is best for ESL, but not for EFL environments. Burnaby and Sun (1989) divided the themes of the participants' views into seven categories: 1) Chinese

students would not benefit from communicative language teaching; 2) non-native speakers as communicative language teachers; 3) context of the wider curriculum; 4) traditional teaching methods; 5) class size and schedule; 6) resources and equipment and 7) teachers' professional status.

According to Burnaby and Sun (1989: 229), teachers viewed class size as an obstacle to using CLT, because "using communicative methods with large groups is difficult, especially given the pressure to cover the curriculum effectively in the time allowed". In general, the participants declared that the CLT approach was not suitable for Chinese learners. Burnaby and Sun (1989) concluded that the CLT approach may be appropriate for ESL environments, but not for all EFL environments, and especially not for China.

A study conducted by Gorsuch (2000) looked at a sample of 884 Japanese senior high school EFL teachers' attitudes towards communicative activities. The questionnaire used a 5-point Likert scale with a series of questions about teaching activities. The findings indicated that the teachers were strongly influenced by the needs of the university entrance exam, which was the most important and competitive exam in their students' academic careers. Both the institution and the students put pressure on teachers to prepare materials relevant to this exam, which was required for university entrance and students' subsequent careers. Developing communicative competence would not meet the needs of these students; thus, the main focus was on grammar instruction. It was also noted that the majority of teachers preferred traditional teaching and resisted switching to the CLT approach. Furthermore, the teachers did not use the target language in their classrooms, reasoning that the students were unable to use it. As communicative competence requires language use, it was therefore deemed not appropriate in teaching English to these Japanese high school students.

Finally, in his study of 300 teachers, Altan (1995) reported on the culture of English teaching in EFL environments in Turkey. Data were collected through a questionnaire, which included open-ended and direct questions, and items on a Likert scale. Altan (1995) classified teachers' views on English teaching in Turkey according to five categories related to the EFL curriculum, language, classroom practices, the teachers' roles, and their profession.

Information was also gathered concerning factors such as why students learned English in Turkey, the aim of the English curriculum, and problems with language teaching in Turkey.

Altan (1995) discovered that the teachers' experience determined their responses. Those with more prior teaching experience thought that the students' aims were mainly to pass examinations. Inexperienced teachers pointed out that grammatical instruction was useful in teaching a language, but they also required students to perform more reading and writing exercises. The teachers differed in their opinions because of the length of their experience. These results are extremely useful in comparison with the findings of other studies, such as those by Al-Nouh (2008), Elabbar (2011), Shiba (2011) and Wong (2012). Most of the topics these EFL teachers in Turkey discussed and the problems they faced are similar to those in other EFL environments.

There have been countless other studies concerning the implementation of CLT and associated problems (Abbott, 1987; Deckert, 1987; White, 1987; Ellis, 1996; Kang, 1999; Liao, 2000). Another empirical study conducted by Al-Nouh (2008) used interviews and classroom observation to investigate 23 Kuwaiti EFL primary school teachers of a CLT-based student-centred method. It was concluded that these teachers did not use a student-centred method even though they had undertaken training courses at university. The evidence revealed that these teachers were preparing students for sit-down exams. The results of the study showed a mismatch between the teachers' experience and what they actually did inside the classrooms. Teachers with more experience had better knowledge and the skills needed for implementing the CLT approach than did those with less experience (Al-Nouh, 2008). Tomlinson (2011) made an important statement regarding the strong CLT approach, reiterating that learners should be provided with the experience of using the language as the main means of learning to use the language. He highlighted the fact that learners talk to facilitate their learning, rather than learning to talk in the language they are learning. I will return to this idea in later sections of this study when analysing the data gathered. Chung and Huang (2010) carried out more recent research in Taiwan to explore the attitudes of learners rather than of teachers with regard to the CLT learning experience. Whilst the Taiwanese government heavily promotes CLT as the preferred approach, as in Libya, learning still tends to be exam-oriented and teaching tends to involve memorisation, grammar and translation. What is interesting in this study is that the students' long-term goal was to improve their communicative competence.

In the Libyan context, various studies have looked into the use of specific aspects of CLT, such as target language use, in the classroom (Oliveira, 2002). An empirical study using



classroom observation conducted in Libyan secondary schools by Orafi and Borg (2009) reported the failure of three Libyan EFL secondary school teachers to implement an English language learner-centred curriculum innovation.

The successful implementation of CLT activities essentially depends on the teacher (Choi, 2000; Liming 2001). It should be emphasised that teachers with high levels of oral ability and fluency can encourage and develop learners' interest in participating in communicative activities. In EFL countries where there is no English input outside the classroom, the main attention is directed towards the teacher as a knowledge provider. According to Breen and Candlin (1980), the teacher's role should be defined firstly as a facilitator who creates communication opportunities among students, and between them and the activities and texts. Secondly, s/he acts as a participant in the teaching process. Thirdly, the teacher's role is related to the goals of the facilitator. Richards and Rodgers (2001) defined the role of the teacher in the CLT classroom as including the need to explore the learners' learning styles, assets and goals, and to provide CLT instruction in group or individual format depending on the results of such analysis. Secondly, teachers should be effective counsellors and communicators in CLT activities such as paraphrasing, confirmation and feedback in order to encourage learners to learn the language effectively. Thirdly, as group process managers, teachers are responsible for guiding, controlling and creating the appropriate conditions for communicative activities (Richard and Rodgers 2001).

Despite the popularity of the communicative approach, it has not been embraced and successfully implemented in all countries. The question here is not the effectiveness of the approach itself, but whether there are factors in EFL countries that have deterred or constrained any substantial implementation of the approach, thus making the assessment of its success inconclusive. Researchers have looked into the inherent constraints present in many countries, particularly in developing countries.

Libya is one of the many countries in which there are marked constraints on the implementation of the communicative approach in the classroom. Factors exist that have, in one way or another, led to obstacles to the communicative approach being used (Orafi 2008; Orafi and Borg, 2009; Phillips et al. (2008 and 2008a).

In Libya, everyday communication is such that many things are often left unsaid; people leave it up to their culture to explain. Even a few well-selected words can communicate vast and complex messages very effectively. Libyans are not used to explicit forms of communication or complex reasoning, and tend to employ high context communication styles and prefer routine interaction. Because of this, Libyan students tend to learn more by repetition rather than by reasoning. With repetition, learning tools become crutches rather than devices of learning. This is why many Libyan teachers are over-reliant on textbooks, as these are used to substitute for genuine meaningful interaction, increasing the chance of “repetition learning” than “discovery/exploratory learning.” These teachers also employ practices that are more in continuing with the audio-lingual method, which uses drills, repetition and habit formation, than they are with venturing into the communicative approach. The school curricula and teaching methodologies have remained traditional, sticking to structures they are familiar with over the years.

Given the characteristics of the structure-based approach, the teachers continue to employ the grammar translation method. The curriculum has remained limited because there is no need under this method to create new materials. Another constraint is that Libyan school students only begin learning English at level seven (ninth class grade) (Orafi and Borg, 2009; Shiba, 2011). Since teaching English is structured, there is no need to consider the student’s needs and interests which, according to Nunan (1987), are important in the communicative approach, thus further deterring its implementation because the customisation of learning is not practised.

To touch upon Libya’s current state in these areas, a brief overview and some historical developments that affected the education in the country should first be examined.

## 2.14 The Education System in Libya and its Subsequent Effects on Learning

This section examines the Libyan education system and provides a brief account of its culture to provide context for the learning systems in place.

### 2.14.1 Historical Introduction

Libya is an Islamic Arabic country located beside the Mediterranean Sea, covering a surface area of about 1,750 million square kilometres with a 1900 kilometre long coastline. The population of Libya is approximately six million, the majority of whom live in Tripoli,

Benghazi and Misurata in the north (Vandewalle 2006). Agnaia (1996) pointed out that Libyan people speak two languages, Arabic and Berber. Arabic is the official language of the country and has various different dialects.

Libya was occupied by Italy from 1911 until 1942, after which it was controlled by British rule before becoming an independent country established as a Kingdom in 1952 (Department of Foreign Information 1991). The government of the monarch Edrees Sanusi (1951-1969) offered free education to all Libyans, and schools, including Koranic establishments, were opened (Orafi, 2008; Orafi and Borg, 2009; Shiba, 2011).

Oil was discovered in Libya in 1955 and first exported in 1961. This gradually transformed Libya into one of the richest countries in the world. In 1969, a coup led by Colonel Gaddafi took authority away from the monarch, and Edrees Sanusi left the country. Koranic schools were then closed, and the authorities removed English teaching from primary schools as the first step towards a new education policy in Libya. Among the results of the new regime's behaviour towards the West was that Libya was isolated economically, educationally and technologically from the rest of the world, and the country stagnated. In 2003, the West forced Gaddafi to hand over his nuclear weapons (Walid, 2011; Orafi, 2008; Orafi and Borg, 2009; Elabbar, 2011; Shiba, 2011).

After the revolutions that occurred in Tunisia and Egypt, and followed the downfall of Ben Ali, president of Tunisia, and Mubarak, president of Egypt in 2010 and 2011, the Libyan people caught a whiff of freedom and decided to fight for change. Thousands of people protested. Troops and brigades were pushed out of Benghazi and the city became completely free of Gaddafi's regime. All of the other cities in the east then seized their own freedom. A series of political events, with the support of international observers and allies, led to the emancipation of the country leading to Libyan Independence Day, marked on the 23<sup>rd</sup> of October 2011.

Prior to the 17th of February 2011 Revolution, the Libyan education system was fully centralised. The Ministry of Education was the sole authority managing all educational matters and determining education policy. Specialised inspectorates in each subject usually selected syllabuses, textbooks and materials. The Ministry of Education distributed the same textbooks to all Libyan schools, as they all employed the same teaching methods. All funding, teaching administration, admissions, curricula, assessments and inspections were controlled by the Ministry of Education (MoE, 2008; Orafi and Borg, 2009).

#### 2.14.2 The Education System from 1969 to the Late of 1980s

The Ministry of Education divided the education system into primary, preparatory, secondary school and university level. Primary teachers were graduates from teachers' institutes, and the majority were men. Children did not study English at primary level.

After primary school, children generally entered preparatory schools from the age of twelve. They studied here for three years and, at the end of the third year, a certificate of completion of the preparatory level was awarded. Subsequently, students had the option to continue through secondary level and on to university, or to choose vocational institutes.

Unfortunately, Libya lacked experimentation and professionals. Some students were not able to choose their orientation. There was an urgent need for the recruitment of professionals and to keep a balance between the numbers of learners in general education and in vocational education. Thus, in order to ensure enrolment in the less popular colleges, compulsory distribution was needed even if sufficient numbers joined the vocational courses voluntarily.

In the first year, learners studied all scientific and social science subjects and, in the second year, courses were divided into natural or social sciences and students could choose which they attended. In the third year, students sat two examinations. Those who passed this national exam were subject to compulsory allocation to different faculties, higher institutions, vocational centres or military academies, depending on their average marks in different subjects. English language was a crucial requirement for certain courses, since it was the language of instruction in university faculties such as medicine, where the average mark required for entrance was 75%.

Secondary vocational education was divided into different faculties, such as applied engineering, computing science, social work or banking. Students entered vocational education either due to a lack of interest in studying, an interest in early employment, or compulsory allocation by the government. English was taught at all vocational colleges as a general subject, but was not usually taken seriously by learners due to a lack of proper teaching. However, most publications used in technical and scientific courses were in English (Shiba, 2011). Therefore, the Ministry of Education (MoE, 2008) recommended that more attention should be given to English in vocational colleges in order to improve the students' skills.

Due to the changes in the socio-economic spheres of the country, teaching and learning English was slowly being affected, as became evident in subsequent years.

### 2.14.3 The New Education System

The Ministry of Education in Libya (2008) offered free education to all Libyans. Education is compulsory and free for both sexes from the age of six to sixteen. Before the 1980s, the education system included both public and private sector institutions (see Phillips et al. (2002a; 2002b; 2008; 2008a).

The public education system is still managed by the Ministry of Education and no one pays fees from primary school to university level. The Ministry of Education is still responsible for everything related to education, such as building schools, employing teachers and supplying books and curricula. Pupils still enrol in public education at the age of six as before. In the private sector, schools are managed and controlled by private owners and administrations, and students are required to pay fees at all levels. In both systems, students have options to select which courses they want to follow, usually under the guidance of their parents. Most families choose to enrol their pupils in public education because it is free and available across the country. However, a few choose private education if they are able to pay the required fees and they wish their children to go to school at the age of five, believing that private education offers much more attention to learning.

Libya made various changes in the 1980s in order to restructure the education system to meet twentieth century demands (Libyan National Commission for Education, Culture and Science 2001). A new education system was introduced in the late 1980s. The primary system was replaced by the basic system that consists of nine years, and the basic level replaced the primary and preparatory levels.

The basic education level is divided into three parts. The first part consists of four years and caters for the age group between six and ten, the second part lasts for two years for children aged between eleven and twelve years, and the third part consists of three years of study and focuses on students in the thirteen to fifteen age group.

In 2008, the Ministry of Education divided the educational system into three stages ranging from basic education for young children up to postgraduate level for adults (see Table 2.3 below).

### 2.3 Number of Schools, Classrooms, Students and Teachers

	Educational Stage	Schools	Classrooms	Students	Teachers
First	Basic Education	3397	40743	939799	119313
Second	Secondary Education	1033	10940	226000	39847
Third	Joint	72	1228	30697	3764
Total		4502	52911	1196496	162924

Adapted from Statistics of the Ministry of Education (MoE, 2008).

Secondary level education has seen many changes concerning the length of study, increasing from three to four years of teaching materials. The new secondary education system gives the students the option to choose subjects according to their interests. Students can specialise in languages, including English, medicine, physics, engineering, computing and general or life sciences. Secondary studies are divided into general and more specialised subjects.

General secondary education lasts for three years and aims to prepare students to commence university. In addition to compulsory subjects, students can opt to specialise in different branches of knowledge.

University education involves various faculties, higher institutes, technical and vocational centres. It lasts between three and six years (Libyan National Commission for Education, Culture, 2001). The goal of this stage of education is to provide Libyan society with professionals in different areas, such as lawyers, teachers and engineers. Master's degrees and doctorates are awarded inside and outside of the country. The Ministry of Education established an Academy for Higher Study in 1999 in Tripoli, and opened branches in Benghazi and Misurata to enable students to study for MAs and PhDs, while more able students are granted scholarships to pursue their studies abroad in various countries and in different fields. The Ministry of Education also sent many students to study English abroad

in the UK, the USA and Canada. As a result, many students finished their studies abroad and joined universities in Libya to teach the English language.

#### 2.14.4 English Teaching in Libya

Foreign language teaching in English, Italian and French was first introduced in the 1940s. These languages were presented as compulsory subjects at different stages. Many Libyan students graduated from universities with a high level of proficiency in these three languages. Due to the great interest in English among young people, English has become widely used in society, and special attention has been given to improving the teaching and learning of the English language (Al Moghani 2003). Since 1940, English has been a major subject in the Libyan education system. Gusbi (1984) stated that the main objectives of introducing the English language into the Libyan educational system were to enable students to use what they learned to express themselves and to read and comprehend simple English passages and textbooks. He said "to achieve this important goal, the pupils should learn to listen to the teacher carefully, imitate what he says correctly, and use what they learn to express themselves, speak clearly, spell right and write legibly" (Gusbi 1984: vi).

Curriculum designers in Libya in the last decade have endeavoured to help learners master and speak the language fluently by concentrating on teaching language skills perfectly. There was more emphasis on fluency to help students communicate in English. However, that approach to English language teaching has undergone many changes. For instance, as far back as 1968, the English language was first introduced in primary schools when the Ministry of Education decided to include English language for pupils in the fifth primary year. This was discontinued when the Gaddafi regime in Libya controlled the country from 1969 to 2011.

During this time (1969- 2011), English teaching and learning in Libya went through various phases. Sawani (2009) remarked that, until 1986, English was taught from the age of 10. However, in 1986, it was entirely banned. This was due to political disputes between the regime and the West, which deeply affected the educational system in Libya and resulted in very low proficiency in English among teachers and students. At this time, many English teachers lost their jobs.

As a result, the learners affected did not recognise the problem until they went to university where they encountered difficulties in studying many subjects taught in the English language such as medicine and engineering. Another effect is that students encountered difficulties when going abroad to pursue higher study.

In the 1970s, English was removed from the primary school curriculum, but was taught as a general subject in some university departments at all levels. The situation worsened when the regime ordered the complete suspension of English language teaching in the whole country in 1985 as a result of political conflict with the West. While no longitudinal study of its effect was conducted, it certainly impacted negatively upon the learners' proficiency, likely resulting in the low proficiency among English teachers. This continued until the 2000s, when the Ministry of Education decided to restart English teaching from the seventh year of the basic level. The Ministry of Education cooperated with renowned western companies, such as Garnet Publishers, to design syllabuses and textbooks to replace the old ones at preparatory and secondary schools. The curriculum then concentrated on linguistic features and the syllabus emphasised accuracy rather than fluency. Teachers, inspectors and researchers, however, started to voice opposition to the traditional syllabus design. This led them to demand that language teaching methods be modified to use the CLT approach rather than traditional methods (see Mohamed, 1987; Phillip et al., 2002a; 2002b; 2008; 2008a).

Unfortunately, no response was received from the authorities, since applying such an approach would need heavy investment in teacher training and resources on their part. Consequently, traditional methods such as GTM and ALM continued to be implemented in schools.

The new curriculum introduced in 2000 was based on the communicative approach in order to encourage learners to learn the language through real-life situations (Cameron, 2001) (see Phillips et al. (2002a; 2002b; 2008; 2008a).

The new course books introduced in 2000, based on the CLT approach, were designed specifically for Libyan students. Their content was carefully prepared to meet the specific needs of students at all levels. The new approach aimed to help students to produce language with a communicative purpose by dividing them into small groups and implementing pair-work.

In their research, Shiba (2011) and Orafi and Borg (2009) stated that English language teaching encountered a major problem due to the lack of qualified teachers. Many teachers



were not able to teach the new curriculum, as it was based on new approaches about which many were completely ignorant. Most of the teachers had used the old curriculum. Most teachers, especially at secondary level, were not happy with their role in teaching English (Shiba, 2011; Orafi and Borg, 2009).

Before introducing the new curriculum, the Libyan government had reintroduced English language teaching to the educational system in the late 1990s. This process was problematic, firstly because of a shortage of English teachers due to the closure of English departments and training institutions. Secondly, many Libyan English language teachers had moved to other professions after they had lost their jobs and thirdly, the reintroduction of English language teaching was not systematic and gradual but unplanned and abrupt. This should have been planned to take place over at least five years in which teacher training could take place, new schools established or refurbished, facilities enabled, and new materials introduced. Many university students at the time had not studied English at secondary and intermediate levels. Suddenly, these students had to study English at university level without any prior knowledge. A report by UNESCO (1996: 22-23) described the state of English language teaching in Libya during this period as follows:

The communicative approach to English language learning has not yet reached Libya. Schools lack the use of educational media; there is even no use of tape recorders and no testing of oral skills. Some schools have overhead projectors, but it seems that teachers do not have printed or blank transparencies or suitable pens to use them. Each basic school class is taught English in the same classroom as the other subjects. There are no language laboratories or even specialist English teaching rooms.

In the mid-1990s, the country started to suffer the consequences of banning English language teaching. The government introduced a new English curriculum in 2000 at all levels. At secondary schools, English was taught differently according to the students' specialisations. Many of these students were preparing for university study in English departments so as to become secondary English teachers.

#### 2.14.5 The Context of English Teachers in Libya

Basic and secondary English language teachers either graduated from teacher training colleges or hold a BA. Pre-service and in-service training needs to be established for teachers at all levels. However, the teacher training colleges that prepare teachers to teach at the basic level underwent changes in 1980 when the four-year teacher training programme was replaced by five-year courses. The main purpose of the new system was to improve the quality of teaching (Elabbar, 2011; Gadour, 2006).

Secondary teachers are graduates of university or English departments in higher teaching institutes (see Figure 2.1). The latter were first established in 1992 to prepare secondary teachers. All of these changes were implemented to enhance the quality of basic and secondary teaching.

Secondary teachers have contended with a lack of equipment, resources and facilities. Over the last ten years, some English graduates have not been prepared or trained to become secondary English teachers (Libyan National Commission for Education, Culture and Science, 2004), and the absence of teaching resources and equipment, such as overhead projectors language labs, and audio/video-recorders adds to the difficulties.

Many also struggle to work through the textbooks in the limited time. Most teachers do not have adequate pre- or in-service training in teaching principles and methodology. They depend on themselves to provide materials, equipment and resources (Orafi and Borg, 2009; Shiba, 2011).

Some of these teachers were employed as a result of the shortage of qualified English teachers. They are not aware of teaching methodologies, which certainly has an impact on their ability to teach. All of these challenges are likely to prevent teachers from fully implementing communicative activities such as pair or group work.

A group of Libyan teachers attended two CLT CPD training sessions in Tripoli in 2010, the aim of which was to find practical solutions to the constraints teachers encounter in their classroom practice. In his report on secondary schools in Libya, McCormack (2010: 1), immediately identified teacher proficiency as an issue: "Aside from logistics, perhaps the greatest challenge was that students' (i.e. teachers') English level sometimes prevented them from full comprehension of ideas and materials". Halfway through their first course, the teachers also expressed a lack of confidence in their own linguistic expertise: "Most feedback

was positive, with most questions concerning English level, especially if non-native speakers can be effective EFL teachers. Some questioned the need for the theories I have covered with them, some of them were a little overwhelmed by today” (McCormack 2010: 10-11). On the opening day, the trainer invited the teachers to identify areas they would like to focus on in the course of their training. He remarked: “the majority indicated reading, writing and grammar as the top areas they want to cover. “Speaking becomes last” McCormack (2010). Whilst the reasons for this were not expanded upon, one might assume that this was because teachers feel least comfortable teaching speaking-related activities.

McCormack (2010) moved through various activities that the teachers found problematic. For example, after providing a Power Point presentation on how EFL can be taught using various different content areas, the trainer asked the participants to work in pairs to think of content areas that they taught in their own educational contexts. He commented that the “students had some trouble understanding the focus of this presentation” (McCormack 2010: 4). He assisted the teachers by offering an opportunity to brainstorm and pool knowledge, and added a further comment that “these brainstorm activities helped students understand the notion of Content-Based Instruction, but they struggled to identify examples. The instructor provided additional examples based on their initial responses, which helped them better understand” (McCormack 2010: 4). McCormack elaborated at a later juncture that “by far the greatest difficulty for several participants is identifying the content goal. Distinguishing this from language goals seems very difficult for some, especially those who are pronunciation or grammar teachers” (McCormack 2010: 12).

In many activities, the trainer highlighted the fact that the teachers struggled initially to understand what was being required of them. “On the lesson plan activity, they did have some initial trouble distinguishing certain aspects of the plans, but all agreed in the end the activity was helpful and made them think about their own planning” (McCormack 2010: 4). However, there did seem to be a readiness to embrace a new style of teaching and embed it in their practice. This is demonstrated by the following comment, which emphasises the teachers’ current teaching focus of reading, but also their readiness to try something new: “In this case, the largest number of activities targeted reading, the fewest were for speaking. Getting the students to recognise this helps them become more aware of their teaching and gives them some motivation to try new activities” (McCormack 2010: 4).

The trainer explored different methods of enabling teachers to extend their activity repertoire with regard to speaking skills: “Students could see how retelling stories helps fine tune the telling. Students also got ideas about creating speaking topics, making and using simple materials, and grouping and moving learners” (McCormack 2010: 6).

The trainer encouraged the teachers to think more imaginatively about how various activities can become more communicative and interactive:

Responses to initial question regarding dictation elicited traditional dictation roles for teachers and students.

Students began recognizing alternatives and then were confused by the interactive dictation, but quickly picked up on what to do.

Peer/peer dictations went well, lots of laughter, but students taking their tasks seriously.

In the end it seemed students became more relaxed in relinquishing their strict, traditional interpretation of dictation.

Students also recognized that activities can include multiple modalities including all four skills (speaking, listening, reading and writing) as well as a focus on careful pronunciation, vocabulary building, etc. (McCormack 2010: 8).

With regard to the possibility of the textbook being exploited in a communicative way, McCormack (2010) stated that, part-way through the second week,

Being able to use their own materials is very important to them, but they want to try to incorporate new ideas into how they use the material. Some students were surprisingly critical of their textbook material, but worked to find better ways to use it (McCormack 2010: 11).

Lack of confidence in their own professional judgement was also a recurring theme of the training. In the second training module, the trainer made the following observation:

A major question that came out of the two speaking lessons was how many of the textbook/workbook activities have to be covered in classes, what can be done at home, how to manage time to practice/coverage of material. This session taught the trainers a lot about the ‘burning Qs’ Pz have, and about what their realistic concerns are regarding the curriculum (McCormack 2010: 5).

#### 2.14.6 Libya's Development as Reflected in EFL Situations of CLT Contexts

The overview of where teachers have been taught and reared in their educational journeys from learners to trainers, coupled with the cultural context whereby their personal beliefs are affected by their professional decorum, certainly brings to light some issues regarding how English is currently taught in the country. Learning English in Libya is based completely on teacher-centred methods, and students usually do not have any opportunity to control their own learning (Orafi and Borg, 2009; Shiba, 2011). There is also very little opportunity for Libyan students to exercise such activities since they need to abide by the structure, and they have little or no opportunity to speak a foreign language in a family-focused society. The students have no opportunity to interact with English-speaking students and little opportunity to interact with native speakers in the country. They also lack the necessary motivation because they have yet to fully realise the importance of learning languages (Libya Education, n. d.).

The numbers of students in classes may also be a deterrent to the adoption of the communicative approach in which high levels of interaction are necessary. In large classes, the time available for communicative activities is limited. English language classes in Libya can contain between 40 and 50 students. "The Libyan education system is suffering from a shortage of qualified English teachers at present. Learners are taught collectively in large classes and they are experiencing a lack of English language interaction in the classroom" (Sawani, 2009: 59). The communicative approach requires extensive interaction through role-play and other activities that are hard to orchestrate. Furthermore, although the number of qualified teachers is increasing, their competency levels need to be scrutinised. The form of teaching assessment does not favour a communicative approach, since it has remained traditional with tests based on grammar. Consequently, there is little scope for educational innovations such as CLT (Al- Nough, 2008; Orafi and Borg, 2009).

In addition, most classes in Libya are taught in Arabic. Instead of being able to practise English, students learn it by using their own language, making their learning technical instead of situational. While they learn grammar and syntax, they are not taught how to situate these lessons in practical situations or in real-life encounters. After several years, many learners may still find that their ability to communicate in English is inadequate.

Technological support (such as lack of computers and internet access) is also lacking, and could be another factor that constrains the use of the communicative approach. Modern

technology is mainly offered in higher educational institutions. Having good internet access available to more people, even outside of educational institutions, could pave the way for global interaction, creating opportunities to speak other languages.

Libyan culture itself may be a barrier to the communicative approach. Since Libyans prefer interacting within their own groups, they will not tend to have an urgent need to learn another language not usually practiced in their circles. They are very selective in terms of the words they use. The communicative approach encourages participants to communicate according to context, and certain contexts require low context or more explicit communication. Libyans must step beyond their high context thinking or culture-related communication in order to embrace the communicative approach (Phillip, 2002a; 2002b; 2008; 2008a).

A new series of textbooks published for the communicative curriculum was introduced in 2000, but teachers acknowledge feeling pressured to create materials and activities suitable for their students. They report that there are already so many tasks that they have to perform that any additional work is a burden. Teachers are reluctant to use CLT because designing their own communicative materials and activities is too time-consuming. Most teachers do not even try to use or develop CLT activities.

Teachers' low oral proficiency in English is another serious obstacle to CLT implementation in Libyan EFL classrooms. The Libyan Ministry of Education decided to implement CLT because Libyan students do not have sufficient oral proficiency in English, even after several years of study. Thus, educators hoped that CLT would play a significant role in developing oral skills in English. However, Libyan teachers are not sufficiently competent to conduct communicative classes in which high levels of speaking and listening ability in English are necessary. Clearly, one of the major barriers to CLT implementation in Libya is the teachers' own limited oral ability.

The new curriculum aims to focus more on students. Consequently, teachers need to modify their methods and look for ways to innovate. They must not be limited to what the textbooks or the guidelines for implementing the new curriculum suggest. Instead, they need to reach out to their students in order for proper communication to ensue.

Almost all educational innovations need teachers to change their classroom practices and embrace new modes and methodologies of teaching. Adequate training for teachers is an important factor in CLT implementation, as previously discussed. Lack of training makes it difficult for teachers to implement the CLT approach (Richards, 2001). Giving teachers

brief, intermittent sessions about a new innovation will also not sufficiently equip them with the necessary knowledge and skills for the successful implementation of CLT. According to Angelides et al. (2006), long-term alterations in practice cannot be achieved via exposure to short-term training programmes. Most teachers in Libya have not undertaken adequate training and, consequently, the implementation of CLT has suffered. Teachers may lack adequate training in teaching methodologies, as well as proficiency in all areas of communication. This is because in almost all classes, successful learning depends greatly on the teacher. Lack of good preparation and planning, lack of adequate materials and inappropriate class organisation all lead to poor communicative language teaching.

The collective weight of these factors helps explain the disparity between what the teachers aim to practice and what they actually do in their classrooms. Recognising this disparity and the reasons behind it is a significant preliminary step in considering how it might be tackled.

## 2.15 The Present Study

The literature review has considered the difficulties and problems encountered by EFL teachers worldwide in the implementation of the CLT approach in their classrooms, especially at the secondary level (Crawford, 2001). These difficulties include textbooks and materials, teacher training, assessment, and the proficiency of teachers and students, as well as other factors. Relevant empirical studies have been carried out since the 1980s in secondary schools throughout the world. However, in Libya, this only started from 2000 onwards. Therefore, more research is clearly needed to investigate the CLT approach and the difficulties facing its implementation in Libya.

Data collected via questionnaires, interviews and classroom observations show that, while the curriculum may focus on CLT activities, teachers are still implementing traditional methods such as the GTM.

Moreover, the tools used to collect data in many of the studies discussed above are not sufficient to investigate CLT implementation and the associated difficulties. For instance, Englezakis (1998), Yang (2000) and Al-Mutawa (2003) only conducted questionnaire studies and concluded their research by producing a list of constraints. However, different tools are required to obtain sufficient data to analyse teaching practices. At the very least, observing what teachers actually do in their classrooms is vital. It is true that some researchers have used questionnaires together with interviews and classroom observations (Ackers and

Hardman, 2001; Al-Khwaiter, 2001; Crawford, 2001; Al-Haji, 2004; Kirkgoz, 2006; Al-Nouh, 2008) but these studies do not look at the cultural context and attitudes of teachers. Therefore, it seems important to investigate this area further.

The following chapters investigate whether or not the CLT approach is applied in Libyan secondary schools and, if so, what its characteristics are and what the challenges to its implementation might be.

The following main research questions are explored:

1. Do secondary EFL teachers implement the CLT approach?
  2. What are teachers' attitudes and beliefs towards the CLT approach?
  3. What are the challenges that teachers encounter in implementing the CLT approach in their classes?
- 

Libyan secondary school teachers' beliefs were elicited and the results are discussed in the following chapters in order to find out whether they implement the CLT approach, and the constraints they encounter.



## Chapter 3 Methodology

### 3.0 Introduction

This study explores secondary school teachers' attitudes and beliefs regarding the use of CLT in EFL classrooms, using Libya as an example and investigating precisely what teachers do in their classrooms. Do they implement the CLT approach or merely follow traditional methods, such as the GTM and ALM? What are the challenges they encounter in implementing the CLT approach? To address these questions fully, the teachers' actual classroom practice needed to be examined, along with their attitudes and beliefs about the CLT approach. In this chapter, the methodology used to explore the following questions is discussed:

1. Do secondary EFL teachers implement the CLT approach?
2. What are teachers' attitudes and beliefs towards the CLT approach?
3. What are the challenges that teachers encounter in implementing the CLT approach in their classes?

CLT imposes certain requirements on learners and teachers. The previous chapter examined the teachers' ability to adopt this approach in EFL settings. Here, I commence with a brief description of the rationale for using both quantitative and qualitative research designs. This is followed by a description of the research participants, and a description of the procedures used for data collection and analysis is then provided, including the instruments employed.

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The instruments used were a questionnaire, structured interviews with teachers, and classroom observations. The rationale for choosing structured interviews is discussed, and the chapter ends by explaining the specific procedures for data analysis that were applied. The following table provides an overview of the methodology used.

Table 3.1 Outline of Methodology Used in This Research

Aim	Research questions	Research instrumentation
Exploring the use of CLT in Libyan secondary EFL schools	Do secondary EFL teachers implement the CLT approach?	Questionnaire
	What are teachers' beliefs and attitudes regarding the CLT approach?	Questionnaire, interview
	What are the challenges faced by teachers seeking to implement CLT?	Interview, observation

To summarise, Table 3.1 above, this study will fulfil its aim of examining the merit of the CLT approach in Libyan EFL classrooms through its exploration of

- 1) the extent to which EFL teachers have or are likely to make use of CLT;
- 2) their beliefs and attitudes regarding the implementation of CLT; and
- 3) the challenges they face therein.

These research questions were in turn addressed through a mixed methods approach that made use of questionnaires, interviews and classroom observations in order to collect data. The questionnaire was mainly conducted to address the first two research questions, while the purpose of the interviews was to cover the third research question, in addition to helping to supplement the data gathered from the surveys. Moreover, the use of classroom observations was also intended to reinforce the data from both the questionnaires and the interviews.

### 3.1 Triangulation

The use of triangulation to validate data is an important aspect of research studies that use the mixed method approach, and adds credibility to the results. Amores (1997: 521) observed that triangulation is “the collection and comparison of data from two or more separate observations or illustrations of the behaviours being studied”. As Brown (2001) noted, triangulation takes different forms, such as seeking different sources and utilising different methods, but the underlying concept is that several data sources and/ or different analytic approaches are used.

The current study makes use of three methods, namely a questionnaire, a structured interview and classroom observation. This is because attitudes must necessarily be understood in terms of situational, context-specific factors, in addition to behaviour, cognition and emotion (Barwise and Perry, 1998). As a result, studies that explore attitudes towards CLT need to take all four factors into account, as well as the relationships among them. In line with the research objective of exploring teachers' beliefs and attitudes regarding the CLT approach, it was thus deemed appropriate to make use of a mixed methods approach in conjunction with methodological triangulation.

### 3.2 Rationale for the Use of Qualitative and Quantitative Research

Before explaining how the data were collected, a rationale is presented for using two different types of research design. Creswell (2008: 62) identified mixed methods designs as "procedures for collecting, analysing, and mixing both quantitative and qualitative data in a single study". On one hand, the qualitative approach is strongest when exploring complex phenomena, which makes it well-suited to the aims of the current study (Jang et al. 2008). Seliger and Shohomy (1989: 118) pointed out that "Qualitative methods originally developed from the methodologies of field anthropologists and sociologists concerned with studying human behaviour within the context in which that behaviour would occur naturally and in which the role of the researcher would not affect the normal behaviour of the subjects". More importantly, qualitative research is characterised by its lengthy involvement with participants, for example through observation and semi-structured interviews. Qualitative research has been well established in most academic fields of study. It is a unique approach to research that can draw on multiple sources and on people's views and opinions of specific experiences.

In this study, the rationale for the qualitative aspect of the mixed methods approach lies in the reliance on individual perceptions of a particular situation. It also allows an examination of how the EFL environment affected teacher's beliefs and attitudes since, as previously mentioned, the context and setting in which teachers experience the phenomenon studied affects their overall understanding of the issue. Taken in the context of the current study, the use of interviews and classroom observation was especially intended to answer the research questions pertaining to the challenges faced by the respondents in their implementation of CLT, while also supplementing the data provided by the questionnaires on their beliefs and attitudes.

On the other hand, quantitative methodologies involve the analysis of data in numerical and statistical forms. Henning (1986) asserted that quantitative analysis helps the researcher go beyond the data and generalise the data to other areas of study. Other researchers using qualitative methods have also realised the need to quantify their data (Spada, 1987; Flyman-Mattsson, 1999). In view of the area under study and the research questions asked, both qualitative and quantitative methods were used. For the purposes of this study, this means that a questionnaire was used in order to provide data pertaining to the respondents' implementation of CLT and their beliefs and attitudes.

It is important to understand what is going on in Libyan secondary schools and to describe the teachers' attitudes and beliefs before elaborating on activities in EFL classes. Quantitative analysis has the benefit of being able to quantify, generalise, and compare findings with those of other, similar studies. It is also useful for drawing conclusions and making more accurate judgments. Employing mixed methods enables teachers to state their knowledge and experience of the implementation of the CLT approach, and to explain the challenges they encounter in their classrooms.

Data were gathered in three ways: through a questionnaire given to participants, the observation of classroom activities and procedures, and interviews with participants. This adds validity to the findings from the questionnaire answers and classroom observations.

As Genesee and Upshur (1996) noted, questionnaires are most useful when employed periodically, and when relatively systematic and uniform feedback is desired from students, parent, or teachers; for example, before instruction begins and at the end of major units of instruction or an entire course. At these times, the information questionnaires provide is valuable for planning and assessing the whole courses or units. They also added that, if questions are structured rather than open-ended, the answers can be easily quantified. Gay (1992) mentioned that an advantage of questionnaires over interviews is that they can be administered to a larger sample at one time, and are less time-consuming. Genesee and Upshur (1996) further asserted that questionnaires provide concrete and fixed records of subjects' answers. Interviews, however, are superior to questionnaires in finding out about beliefs and attitudes. Oppenheim (1992) mentioned that interviews allowed more to be said about research issues than could usually be mentioned in a questionnaire. This is why interviews were also used.

The data collection in classroom observation employed the Communicative Orientation of Language Teaching (COLT) protocol. Classroom observation is widely seen as the best way to examine what teachers actually do in their classrooms; for example, how they use communicative activities (see Chapter Four, section, 4.2.1).

Having presented an overview of the methodology employed in this study, the subsequent sections describe the setting and the participants.

Although each type of data collection method has its limitations, the combination of methods can overcome these to some extent. Questionnaires are useful in terms of their extensive focus, but they are limited in that they take a snapshot of development in one moment in time under very specific conditions. They tell us very little about the actual process of how classroom instruction is carried out. Classroom observation can yield rich descriptions that can be used to understand teaching practices. However, one limitation is that it does not reveal the rationale underlying the practices. Interviews are useful for investigating beliefs and gaining information about situational constraints that teachers feel they encounter when using CLT. However, interviews do not inform us about actual classroom practices. Therefore, using a single method could not elicit comprehensive information about teachers' attitudes toward CLT and practice, while the combination of the three methods can overcome and complement the limitations of each individual method.

Many previous studies have investigated teachers' attitudes towards CLT using either classroom observation (Nunan, 1987), interviews (Li, 1998) or questionnaires (Karavas-Doukas, 1993; 1996). Most of these studies adopted a single research method to study one or two aspects of attitudes, and are quite limited. Combining these three methods can ensure that adequate attention is paid to the description of beliefs, attitudes and overt behaviour, as well as to situational constraints.

### 3.3 Sampling

Sampling can be classified as either random or purposive. Random sampling gives members of the target population the same opportunity of selection in the sample, whereas in purposive sampling, the researcher consciously decides to include or exclude a wider population (Gay and Airasian, 2003; Cohen et al., 2007; Bryman, 2008). In this study, purposive sampling was implemented.

### 3.4 Setting

The primary location of the current research was twelve purposively selected secondary schools in different districts of the city of Misurata (see Table 3.2 below), which is located 210 kilometres east of Tripoli, the capital of Libya. Misurata (area number 6 shown in Figure 3.1) was chosen as it was easy for the researcher to gain access to the schools and to recruit the study participants in this region. A friend who works for the Ministry of Education helped the researcher to get authorisation to gain access to participants and to collect data. The names of the schools in which the research took place are listed below (see Table 3.2 and Figure 3.1).

Table 3.2 Location of Schools in the City of Misurata

School Name	Location
Shuhada Yedder	Yedder
Arrwesat	Al-Gheran
Abbad	Abbad
Aljazeera	Aljazeera
Arramala	Arramala
Azzarouq	Azzarouq
Gaser Ahmed	Gaser Ahmed
Karzaz	Karzaz
Abu Rawaiya	Abu Rawaiya
Addafniya	Addafniya
Al-Gheran	Al-Gheran
Azaweya	Azaweya

Fig 3.1 Map of Libya



Source: <http://www.bing.com/images/search?q=libya+map>

### 3.5 Participants

The participants in this study consisted of 24 secondary EFL teachers in Libyan state schools. All participants are male since, in Islamic society, it is more convenient for males to observe and interview other males with ease. Consequently, it would have been difficult for me, as a male researcher, to engage females in interviews. All of the teachers filled in the questionnaires and were interviewed and observed.

On receipt of the Ministry of Education authorisation, I divided the teachers into six categories according to their levels of experience and training (see Table 3.3 below).

Table 3.3 Participants' Levels of Experience and Training

LEVEL OF EXPERIENCE	TRAINING
Educationally trained-high-experience, (5 teachers).	Non-educationally trained-high-experience, (4 teachers).
Educationally trained-medium-experience, (4 teachers).	Non-educationally trained-high-experience, (4 teachers).
Educationally trained-low – experience, (4 teachers).	Non-educationally trained-high-experience, (3 teachers).

\*Educationally trained= were trained in CLT method.

In terms of the level of experience, Group 1 consisted of five participants who were educationally trained and highly experienced, group 2 consisted of four educationally trained participants with a medium amount of experience, and Group 3 consisted of four educationally trained participants with low-level experience. For the level of training, Group 4 consisted of four non-educationally trained, highly experienced participants, Group 5 consisted of four non-educationally trained participants with a medium amount of experience, and Group 6 consisted of three non-educationally trained participants with low-level experience.

Two teachers were purposively selected from each school. I was the sole investigator distributing all questionnaires and conducting interviews and observations. The purposively selected participants consisted of those with BA degrees in English or linguistics, and at least one year of teaching experience. Even though all of these teachers had experience in English



teaching, it was hypothesised that they might have different attitudes to the effectiveness of CLT in their own teaching contexts. In fact, several teachers pointed out that CLT had recently been introduced, and not many of them had received general training courses, let alone courses in CLT.

As Table 3.3 indicates, 13 participants in this study had undergone training in education, whilst 11 teachers had not. Taking into account the teachers' difficulty with regard to English proficiency, I administered the interviews in Arabic and provided an Arabic translation of the questionnaire so that participants were able to express their thoughts and ideas fully in their native language. Participants ranged in age from 23 to 60, with the average being 41.5 years old.

### 3.6 Questionnaires

Questionnaires are mainly used to collect data on phenomena that cannot be easily observed, such as attitudes, motivations and self-conceptions. They are also used to obtain background information about research subjects such as, in this case, age, previous background in language learning, number of languages spoken and years of studying English (Seliger and Shohamy, 1989; Oppenheim, 1992; Richards and Lockhart, 1994). As applied to this particular study, the purpose of the instrument was to ascertain the attitudes held by the respondents towards CLT. The same instrument was also intended to account for the challenges they faced in the implementation of CLT. The sampling method used could be said to be purposive in that it required prospective respondents to be teachers at the secondary level of Libyan EFL schools who freely gave their consent to participate in the study. Within the population of interest, however, random sampling was utilised in order to ensure that the results would provide the closest possible resemblance to actual trends pertaining to CLT.

According to Gass and Mackey (2007: 148) questionnaires are “written instruments that present all participants with the same series of questions or statements, which the participants then react to either through providing written answers, making Likert-style judgements or selecting options from a series of statements”.

According to Cohen et al. (2007) and Gass and Mackey (2007), the questionnaire is a reliable method for data collection since it asks all participants the same questions.

Between March and May 2010, I distributed thirty questionnaires to twelve Misurata secondary schools (see Appendix 1). Of the twenty-nine questionnaires returned, five had to be discarded as some answers were omitted. Likert-scale questions were chosen as the primary means of data collection because, as Fraenkel and Wallen (1996:129) suggested, “it is possible to discover attitudes by asking an individual to respond to a series of statements of preference. The pattern of responses consists of evidence of one or more underlying attitudes”.

The research questionnaire consisted of twenty-four items adapted from Karavas-Doukas (1996), anchored by ‘strongly agree’ and ‘strongly disagree’ categories. Karavas-Doukas (1996) stated that the Likert-type scale or method of summated ratings is the most widely used method of scale construction for two reasons: its relative ease of construction, and its use of fewer statistical assumptions. Karavas-Doukas distinguished between the Likert scale and the two other very common techniques of attitude scale construction, pointing out that “a Likert-scale does not use experts to judge which statements are most appropriate for the attitude scale.” Furthermore, it does not use a laborious procedure such as a scalogram analysis to select the most appropriate items for inclusion in the scale. In addition to Karavas-Doukas’ 24 items, the questionnaire also collected information about the participants’ demographic status and included open-ended questions in which the participants were asked to define the term ‘communicative language teaching’ in either English or Arabic. They were also asked to indicate whether they would be interested in being interviewed and/or in allowing me to sit in on a random class of their choice that would provide a clearer picture of the school’s demonstration of their grasp on the principles of CLT.

A professor of linguistics had previously reviewed and commented on the questions, which were modified accordingly in order to neutralise loaded meanings in some of the original items. The data obtained from the questionnaire survey were quantitatively analysed using descriptive statistics such as the mean (M) and standard deviation (SD). The Microsoft Excel Package was used in order to facilitate the analysis procedure.

Although questionnaires are useful, they are limited as they take a snapshot of development of one moment in time. Questionnaires tell us little about the actual process in which classroom instruction are carried out.

Thus, using a single method cannot elicit complete information about teachers' attitudes and beliefs towards CLT, while the use of the combination methods can overcome the limitations of each method.

### 3.6.1 Questionnaire Design

The questionnaire opened with a demographic section that gathered personal information about the teachers, such as their place of graduation, gender and number of years of teaching. The next section focused on the perceived importance of grammar instruction (statements 1, 3, 12, 17, 18 and 23). The subsequent section of the questionnaire was concerned with the role of the teacher (statements 4, 5, 7, 8, 11, 16, 19, 20 and 24), followed by questions considering group and pair work activities (statements 2, 9, 13, 21 and 22). The final part elicited information for scale of error correction (statements 6, 10, 14 and 15).

To encourage teachers to complete the questionnaire, statements were itemised utilising a Likert scale of five responses, ranging from 'strongly disagree' (SD), 'disagree', (D), 'undecided' (U), 'strongly agree' (SA), to 'agree' (A).

Cohen et al. (2007: 331) referred to the Likert-scale format as "economical in terms of space", and Larson-Hall (2010: 395) also pointed out that this structure is 'typical'. The questionnaire consisted of a total of 24 questions (see Appendix 1).

### 3.6.2 Validity and Reliability of the Questionnaire

Various kinds of checks can be conducted by researchers to determine the validity of the research methods used. Although all types of validity can significantly contribute to the success of any research, content validity is more relevant and important in this study. Construct content validity implies that the instrument used should cover the topic under investigation fairly and comprehensively (Gass and Mackey, 2007).

Good construct validity can be assured by seeking the reflections of experts on the content and structure of a questionnaire (Cohen et al., 2000; Gay and Airasian, 2003; Bryman, 2008).

Subsequently, the research supervisor for this study reviewed items in the teachers' questionnaire. Other PhD colleagues assisted through discussions and useful comments. In

addition, a PhD colleague revised the Arabic translation version for accuracy (see Appendix 1 for the English version).

### 3.7 Interviews

Interviews can be used to explore general topics and to help uncover the participant's experiences, interpretations and meanings (Marshall and Rossman, 1999). However, unlike a questionnaire, an in-depth qualitative interview is able to elicit detailed information from interviewees. In this study, interviews were conducted to gather information pertaining to the teachers' own classroom practices and the rationale behind these practices. The use of the interview enabled the interviewer to record information that went beyond that collected via the questionnaire and classroom observations. In addition, by communicating directly with the participants, the interviewer could clarify any misunderstandings of the questions, as well as ambiguities in both questions and responses.

As Gay (1992) pointed out, interviews are a good way to obtain in-depth data concerning people's beliefs, feelings and attitudes. It seemed crucial to interview the participants in the present study, given the objective of comparing their beliefs and actual practice.

Breakwell (1990) distinguished between structured and unstructured interviews. Unstructured interviews deal with the topics and not the questions. There are no set questions, and the order of the topics covered depends on the flow of the conversation. This kind of interview allows participants to say as much as they like, which is good; but it is difficult to analyse or compare the responses of different interviewees. However, in structured interviews, the interviewer questions respondents via exactly the same questions in the same order (Crowl, 1993). This allows comparisons between categories to be made easily, and to cover all relevant topics.

For the purposes of this study, I chose to conduct semi-structured interviews, following a set of guidelines that need to be followed for setting such questions (Breakwell, 1990; Oppenheim, 1992; Genesee and Upshur, 1996). The criteria include the provision that the questions should not include complex words or lead the interviewee. They should not be too long, or challenge the memory by asking interviewees to recall old information, and they should not be able to be interpreted in more than one way. Oppenheim (1992) referred to the idea that interviews allow more to be said about the research issues than can usually be

mentioned in a questionnaire, and are often used in studies for investigating perceptions and knowledge (Karavas-Doukas, 1996; Zhang, 1997; Sato and Kleinsasser, 1999; Sakui, 2002). In this context, an interviewer is able to clarify misunderstandings and to observe interviewees and take notes of their behaviour. Finally, interviews can give in-depth information and are more flexible when it is impossible to obtain this material by any other method (Seliger and Shohamy, 1989; Gay, 1996).

I opted for a semi-structured interview because, using this method, I was able to discover the teachers' attitudes and beliefs towards CLT. In other words, the interviews helped me to develop insights into how the participants interpreted and defined their world. Through interviews, descriptive data are gathered in the interviewees' own words (Bogdan and Biklen, 2007). For this study, individual semi-structured interviews were chosen in order to gather comparable data across participants (Bogdan and Biklen 2007). Even though the researcher prepares a set of guiding questions and prompts prior to the interviews, the format of the structured interview is open-ended, giving respondents the opportunity to explore issues raised in the interview questions. In other words, as Dornyei (2007) stated, the questions provide guidance and direction, and the interviewer is free to follow up on any interesting developments that may arise during the interview session. Since I did not want to limit the depth and breadth of the interviewee's narrative, the interview structure simply provided guidance and directions to the interviewees (Dornyei, 2007).

As a data collection method, interviews have other advantages. Firstly, they allow one to gather a large amount of data quickly (Bogdan and Biklen, 2007; Marshall and Rossman, 1999). Four months were allocated to this section of the research involving work with participants and, consequently, structured interviews were the easiest and quickest way to obtain a large amount of data on attitudes and beliefs. Secondly, as a researcher I was able to request immediate clarifications or pose follow-up questions (Marshall and Rossman, 1999).

The semi-structured interview consisted of fourteen questions about communicative language teaching, touching on areas such as group work, incorporating audio-visual aids, and grammar teaching. An Arabic version was used to ensure that all participants understood the questions. I jotted down the teachers' responses as they replied and recorded them using an audio-recorder.

This study, then, conducted structured interviews with twenty-four participants. A structured interview, as Merriam (1998: 74) declared, “is guided by a list of questions or issues to be explored, but neither the exact wording nor the order of the questions is determined ahead of time”. Merriam further suggested that a structured interview is sufficient flexible to allow the interviewer to respond to the situation at hand, to the emerging world-view of the participants, and to new or unforeseen ideas concerning the topic.

### 3.7.1 Interview Design

A set of 36 questions was prepared to elicit the teachers’ beliefs and attitudes towards the CLT approach in order to help to answer the research questions (see Chapter 2). The interview topics were those chosen by consulting previous studies (Al-Nouh, 2008; Orafi, 2008; Orafi and Borg, 2009; Elabbar, 2011; Shiba, 2011) and some modifications were then made. The questions were carefully reviewed and checked, and were then divided into four topics. The first topic was the teaching of language in the classroom, which consisted of seven questions concerning the teachers’ knowledge and practice of CLT in their classrooms. The second topic focused on the implementation of CLT and consisted of five questions aiming to discover whether or not the teachers implemented CLT and the challenges they encountered, including information about the resources available and the training that the teachers may have undertaken. The third topic included 11 questions concerning how the teachers taught grammar, fluency and accuracy. The final topic was error correction, and consisted of six questions to find out how the teachers corrected students’ errors. The questions aimed to identify why students make errors in speech and the possibility of teaching the four skills equally. The 36 interview questions were distributed to 24 teachers (see Appendix 2).

In order to recruit participants, I first read through the returned questionnaires and selected participants who indicated an interest in being interviewed. All participants interviewed had completed the questionnaire. Six prospective interviewees dropped out since they wanted me to interview them in their home towns, and the cost thereof prohibited this.

I asked participants where they preferred to be interviewed and about their availability. I made final arrangements and communicated to participants the times and places of their interviews (see Appendix 2).

On the day of the interviews, I undertook an intensive review of the interview questions. At the beginning of each interview, I introduced myself to the interviewees in a friendly way, intending to allow them to feel at ease and relaxed, and they were offered hot or cold drinks of their choice. At the outset, I emphasised that the purpose of the interview was to talk about and share their knowledge and experiences in teaching English as a foreign language in Libyan secondary schools and about their beliefs and attitudes, rather than to assess their knowledge of CLT. I asked for their permission to audio-record the interviews (see Appendix 2). I made sure that each interview lasted for about one hour at the most. I did not interrupt participants, who were highly engaged in their conversations with me, but rather tried to see where the interviews might go. I assured them that their names would not be disclosed, and all interviewees were informed that they could withdraw from or interrupt the interview at any time (Berg, 2009). The interviews were conducted in Arabic so as to enable the conversation to flow naturally (Briggs, 1986). At the end of the interviews, participants were asked to review their responses carefully so that inaccurate data would not be used, and so nothing would be omitted (Bell, 2005). The 24 interviews were subsequently transcribed and translated into English for inclusion in this thesis. Each interviewee verified the English script of his interview. Finally, I summarised and transcribed the data in a comprehensive way (Cohen et al., 2007).

### 3.8 Classroom Observation

Observation is a fundamental and commonly utilised method in all qualitative inquiries (Marshall and Rossman, 1997). McMillan and Schumacher (2001: 273) explained that

As a technique for gathering information, the observational method relies on a researcher's seeing and hearing things and recording these observations, rather than relying on the subject's self-report responses to questions or statements.

Many researchers (Weir and Roberts 1994) regard the use of classroom observation as the most appropriate method for verifying the implementation of a particular teaching method.

The purpose of the observations conducted in this study was to obtain direct information regarding the teachers' actual classroom behaviour. Data analysis can then allow us to

determine whether or not their professed beliefs and attitudes are reflected in their behaviour, and to identify which components render their teaching traditional or communicative.

According to McMillan and Schumacher (2001: 273), another advantage of classroom observation “is that the researcher does not need to worry about the limitation of self-report bias, social desirable or response set, and the information is not limited to what can be recalled accurately by the subject”. As far as this study is concerned, the most important advantage of classroom observation is that it can inform us with regard to the social desirability factor. A questionnaire designed to ask teachers about their attitudes toward CLT may elicit favourable responses and, although teachers may respond honestly, there is also the possibility that they might not admit to having negative attitudes toward this method. Through classroom observation, however, teachers’ actual behaviour in the classroom can be measured accurately.

For the classroom observations, the COLT scheme (Frohlich et al., 1985) was adopted to observe the same teachers who had been interviewed. Classroom observation was selected for the collection of data since Gay (1992) described it as the only way to achieve more objective and accurate information about teachers’ practices in the classroom. Furthermore, as Crowl (1993: 125) said,

There are numerous forms of behaviour that can best be measured by direct observation rather than by paper and pencil tests or by questionnaires. In education, one of the most common forms of behaviour that is best measured by direct observation is behaviour in a classroom setting.

In addition, various studies, such as those by Orafi and Borg (2009) and Al-Nouh (2008) have reported that there are inconsistencies between what teachers say and what they actually do in the classroom.

This qualitative methodology was used in this study to find out whether or not teachers implemented the CLT approach in their classrooms. According to Gay (1996), behaviour occurs in a context; thus, in order to understand the behaviour, we need to understand the context in which it occurs. On the other hand, quantitative research collects numerical data to explain, predict, or control the phenomenon being investigated (Gay, 1996).



The combination of qualitative and quantitative methods is useful to compensate for their respective strengths and weaknesses. Seliger and Shohamy (1989) pointed out that the combination of the two methods in field work is an ideal cyclic process.

Observation is necessary to assess human skills and behaviour. It allows the collection of detailed and complex information that it might not be possible to obtain using other methods, such as questionnaires (Genesee and Upshur, 1996). The need to investigate teachers' practices and beliefs, according to Woods (1996), stems from thinking that teachers are not transparent entities who fulfil curriculum plans and goals as prescribed by their authors, but who filter, digest, and implement the curriculum depending upon their beliefs and environmental contexts. Also, more importantly, as Ruiz-Funes (2002: 3) argued, teachers' "own experiences, beliefs, and practices have not been adequately recorded". Classroom observation is vital, since it is in the classroom that "the prime elements of learning and teaching, ideas and ideologies, policies and plans, methods and materials, learners and teachers, all mix together" (Kumaravadivelu, 2006).

According to Seliger and Shohamy (1989), researchers can either be participants in the observations when they participate in the acts that they are describing, or non-participants when they observe and take notes of the behaviour they witnessed (Seliger and Shohamy, 1989). In the present study, I acted as a non-participant observer.

The measurement instrument used in this study was an adapted version of the COLT (Communicative Orientation of Language Teaching) scheme (Allen et al., 1984; Frohlich et al., 1995). The main aim of COLT is to capture differences in communicative orientation in L2 classrooms. The present study had similar concerns, in setting out to measure the extent to which Libyan secondary EFL classes may be characterised as communicative. However, since the COLT scheme was developed in a different context, I introduced some modifications so that it was suitable for the Libyan context. These changes and the rationale behind them are explained later in this chapter.

The COLT scheme is a real-time instrument that enables the observer to describe pedagogical events as they occur at the level of task type, class organisation, content, skill and materials used. It includes specific categories that distinguish communicative from non-communicative approaches. These are then variables, which serve to "measure the extent to which an instructional treatment may be characterised as communicatively oriented" (Frohlich et al., 1985: 29).

As Al-Nouh (2008) commented, the COLT observation scheme is divided into two parts (see Table 3.4 below), the first concerning classroom activities related to the teachers and pupils' activities, and the other relating to teacher-pupil interaction.

Table 3.4 COLT Observation Scheme (Al-Nouh, 2008).

COLT Observation Scheme	
Part A	Part B
Classroom activities	Teacher-pupil interaction

The categories used are *participant organisation*, *content*, *content control*, *student modality*, and *materials*. Participant organisation refers to the way the students are organised (Spada and Frohlich, 1995), and Part A of COLT refers to participant organisation, content, content control, student modality, and materials. The designation 'class' refers to activities led by the teacher who interacts with the whole class or with individual students. It also applies to activities led by a student with another student or the whole class, as well as to the entire class, individuals or groups in choral work. The term 'group' refers to activities performed in groups, whereas the 'individual' designation refers to activities where students work alone.

The second category of content refers to the activities conducted by the teacher and students in terms of what they say, read, write or listen to in the classroom. Spada and Frohlich (1995) divide this into areas of language and other topics. The language used is further divided into Form, Function, Discourse and Socio-linguistic aspects. Form covers grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation, spelling, and punctuation. Function refers to communicative functions such as requesting, apologising, and explaining. Discourse concerns how sentences are combined in a cohesive and coherent way, when describing a process; for example, what students did when they visited the moon (Spada and Frohlich, 1995: 17), and Socio-linguistic refers to styles appropriate to particular contexts (Spada and Frohlich, 1995).

According to Spada and Frohlich (1995), 'content control' refers to whoever chooses the topic or task that is the focus of instruction, which can be divided into the three subcategories

of teacher/text, teacher/text/student and student. 'Student modality' refers to the skills involved in a classroom activity. Part B of COLT looks at verbal interactions between the teachers and students. It is divided into two sections relating to teachers and students. 'Teacher verbal interaction' categories include 'target language off-task', 'target language on-task', 'information gap', 'sustained speech', and 'reaction' to the form or message.

In this study, a sub-category of pair work (Pair) is included in the instrument used because, during classroom observations, this type of class organisation was used in three of the classes observed. Furthermore, the textbook series entitled *English for Libya* contains pair-work activities. By exploring this category, I hoped to elucidate the extent to which teachers followed the guidelines listed in the Teachers' *Handbooks and Textbooks for Libya* for different levels (see Phillip et al., 2002a; 2002b; 2008; 2008a). For this study, the COLT sub-category pertaining to groups and individuals was clarified as pertaining to either group work or individual work. The tasks prescribed in the textbooks for all levels always require learners to be organised in the same way, and all learners should work either individually, or in pairs or groups.

For this study, it was assumed that the usage of the aforementioned COLT sub-categories would serve as a gauge of the extent to which Libyan teachers are able to facilitate the proficiency of their students in the practical use of the TL. As Long (1990) said, both paired work and group work are equally important in the development of communicative competence, as compared to teacher-centred methods that are often too restrictive on the productive abilities of students. This is because teacher-centred methods tend to boil down to students providing answers to questions, with critical thinking becoming a secondary objective in comparison (Allen et al., 1984).

Theorists concur that the major factors believed to influence classroom practice and distinguish classes are class level, the teacher's experience and school location. Therefore, the lessons observed in this study included classes taught by educationally trained, experience and non-educationally trained, experience teachers, with varying levels of experience and training (high, medium and low) see Table 3.3 for the participants' classification according to their level of experience and training.

In order to meet validity criteria, classroom observation needs to satisfy the following conditions:

1. It should provide an accurate record of what takes place. This means that observation measures should indicate significant behavioural features,
2. Data should be relevant to the characteristic features of the programme, and
3. Data should be complete to ensure that the entire programme is fairly reflected (Weir and Roberts, 1994: 172).

In this study, observations of each of the 24 participants took place on two occasions. Each observation session lasted for 40 minutes; the same duration as the class itself. Therefore, the overall length of the observation period was 48 classes totalling 1,920 minutes. Classroom observations were carried out in twelve schools located in twelve areas in Misurata, as mentioned above: Shuhada Yedder, Arrwesat, Abbad, Aljazeera, Arramala, Azzarouq, Gaser Ahmed, Karzaz, Abu Rawaiya, Addafniya, Al-Gheran and Azaweya. It might be argued that these areas do not represent all the possible sites at which CLT would be used. It is important to point out that, to make the sample as representative as possible, I had intended to visit more schools than those mentioned above. The Ministry of Education only allowed me to conduct the research in the above-mentioned schools.

I employed a sensitive Sony audio-cassette recorder to pick up most of the sounds in the classroom. Some teachers were not willing to be video-recorded, so no video recorder was utilised. Spada and Frohlich (1995) and Zotou (1993) also used audio recordings, and reported that this is more convenient as it offers better sound quality and allows for the easier coding of data according to the COLT classification. During the observations, I remained neutral and did not engage with either the students or the teachers. I entered the classroom with the teacher so as not to distract the pupils. The tape-recorder was turned on and adjusted at the beginning of the class and was stopped after the teacher finished the lesson. I made notes on phenomena that would not have been picked up by the audio-recording, such as gestures, the use of visual aids or the board. I took notes concerning the progress of the lesson using a digital clock, referring to what the teacher and students were doing and I measured how much time was spent on each activity. The tape-recording was used to pick up the teachers' and students' oral productions during various activities. The COLT observation scheme was completed afterwards based on my notes and the material recorded.

Before conducting classroom observations, I contacted the schools and met each head-teacher and every teacher in his own school. I explained the research procedures and obtained their

written consent after the observation in order not to make them anxious (see Appendix 4). Teachers were notified a week prior to their classroom observation.

The observation sessions took place between April and June 2010. A total of six secondary schools were involved in this part of the study. The average class size was 40 students. The students attended classes six days per week from September to June each year. Every teacher was observed twice, and a period of one week elapsed between the two observations, as in Spada and Frohlich's (1995) and Spada's (1987) studies, in order to observe how the teachers and students approached various themes in the syllabus. It was impossible to leave more than a week between the two observation sessions, since the students needed to prepare for their final examinations and start their summer vacations.

In this study, various measures were taken in order to guarantee the reliability and validity of the results. The first was the use of a structured instrument that included low-inference categories. According to Malamah-Thomas (1987), such categories are not subject to divergent interpretations; which increases the validity and accuracy of observational data. The second measure necessitated that the teachers would not be given more than a week's notice that they were going to be observed, in order to allow the researcher to be better able to observe these teachers hold classes that were as close as possible to their regular performance. The third measure was to control the possible effect of the observer. As mentioned above, I was a non-participant observer who always entered the classroom at the same time as the teacher and students. I sat at the back of the classroom and refrained from any behaviour likely to attract the attention of the teacher or the students while the lesson was proceeding. Emphasis was made that the observation was not a performance evaluation, but only to determine what actually happened in the classrooms. Moreover, to reduce the social gap between the observer, teachers and students, I wore traditional clothes and stayed silent. All of this information was given in writing to the teachers. Weir and Roberts (1994) stressed that the presence of the observer may not represent an important threat to the validity of the data, because classes tend to revert to normal practice when an observer becomes a familiar presence and when teachers and students become engaged in their tasks. This is because much classroom discourse is based upon strongly habitual routines followed by both teachers and students.

The second condition suggested by Weir and Roberts (1994) stipulated that observational data must be relevant to the characteristics of the programme. Therefore, a conscious effort was made to include categories that represented different features of CLT. These characteristics were determined from a review of ESL/EFL literature on CLT methodology. For the purposes of this study, I attempted to adapt the instrument to the Libyan context.

The third condition specifies that the researcher should make sure that the entire programme is reflected fairly; thus, an effort was made to observe different types of class settings. According to King et al. (1987), three major variables are likely to differentiate between classes, namely class level, the teacher's experience and the location of the school. In the present study, the sample included classes from Levels 1, 2 and 3 of secondary education. The sample also included classes taught by the two levels of experience and trained teachers (see Table 3.3 above).

### 3.9 Data Analysis Procedures

#### 3.9.1 Survey Questionnaire

In the quantification stage, numerical codes were assigned to non-numerical categories of demographic information so as to be counted for further tabulation and interpretation. After coding and categorisation, the data were analysed using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) Version 7.0 for Windows. Descriptive statistics were used, including frequencies, percentages, means and standard deviations.

#### 3.9.2. Interviews

Prior to the analysis of the structured interview data, each interviewee was asked to read the translated version of his interview script for verification. I then began the analysis by reading the transcripts carefully several times (Athanasios and Heath, 1995). I returned frequently to the research questions in order to refocus on the work. Salient themes that emerged were then extracted, keeping in mind the important fact that "the critical task in qualitative research is not to accumulate all the data you can, but to 'can' (i.e., get rid of) most of the data you accumulate" Wolcott (2001:44). I noted units of information on separate sheets. This information was subsequently coded and sorted according to the situational factors of who, what, when, where, and why. The data obtained helped in confirming or refuting findings

resulting from the data analysis of the questionnaire. Most importantly, the interview data helped to narrow the focus of the analysis.

The researcher herself/himself is an instrument in qualitative inquiry (Creswell, 1998) whose subjectivity plays a role in the research (Marshall and Rossman, 1999). Bearing this in mind, I made a conscious effort to deconstruct my subjectivity and to understand the biases that I brought to the study that were inherent in my own specific background (Bogdan and Biklen, 2007). Recognising my ambivalent feelings towards CLT, I tried to reduce the effect such bias could have on interpreting the data. For instance, the triangulation of methods was employed in order to minimise such bias and achieve a more accurate interpretation of the data. At the same time, I used our common heritage to develop a relationship of trust with the participants. I also took advantage of a common ethnic, professional and linguistic background to establish rapport with interviewees. For example, rather than starting each interview in English (which would be the accepted language of communication among English language practitioners), I began each interview in Arabic and switched to English only after the participants agreed to conduct the interviews in English. In this way, I attempted to minimise the social gap between the participants and myself, and to develop solidarity with them.

As Marshall and Rossman (1999) stated, the success of interviewing hinges to a large extent on the interviewer's interpersonal skills. Thomas (1983) suggested that a researcher cannot simply be a “sponge-like observer”, and Marshall and Rossman (1999: 80) recommended that “when the researcher [is] minimally intrusive and present for a short period of time, building trusting relations must proceed in conjunction with gathering good data”. I decided to begin building a trusting relationship with the participants by attending two of the classes that each taught. On these occasions, I was able to introduce myself to the participants, as well as the students.

### 3.9.3 COLT Data Analysis

Structured observation is more reliable than unstructured observation when the generalisability of findings is the aim of the study (King et al., 1987). Structured observation uses predetermined categories for description, which can yield statistically analysable data. It allows for statistical inference to be used to identify objective patterns and trends, and provides an objective standard of judgment to bring to bear on the evaluation of findings, and

allows the generalisation of results from a sample to a larger population. According to Weir and Roberts (1994), three measures can be used to ensure the reliability of observational data and the generalisability of results: the coefficient of stability, observer agreement and repeated measures reliability. The stability coefficient compares measures made by the same observer of the same event on different occasions. Weir and Roberts (1994) stressed that this method is not appropriate for classes in a school on different occasions, since these events are not completely comparable. Besides this, “although in training this measure may indicate consistency in judgment (i.e., reliability), it would not necessarily be valid (i.e., the observer may be consistently inaccurate in the completion of a checklist or in coding classroom talk)” (Weir and Roberts, 1994: 172).

Measuring agreement consists of comparing observations made by different observers of the same event occurring on a single occasion. This measure is not applicable to the present study, which was carried out by a single researcher. Repeated measures reliability is more often used in other fields of enquiry, such as in language testing, and consists of administering the same instrument on different occasions to the same person. Again, this method is inappropriate in the present research, because “a teacher’s performance and interaction in the same classroom may vary considerably from occasion to occasion” (Weir and Roberts, 1994: 172). Since none of the above reliability measures was appropriate for this study, a structured instrument that included low-inference categories was used. Weir and Roberts (1994) observed that the use of this type of category helps to obtain reliable data.

#### 3.9.4 Procedures

After I had collected the required data, I prepared it for analysis and reviewed the 1,920 minutes (32 hours) notes of classroom observations of every observation, and made sure all of the details required were complete. Then, using detailed observation notes, I coded all the activity steps for all the teachers observed. I then matched all the activities to their counterpart in COLT. I counted the time spent on every activity under the relevant category. After that, I counted the time that each activity lasted. I then calculated the time taken for each single category and activity. I divided the entire time spent on each activity by the total observation time, and calculated the percentages of time spent, as a whole classroom activity, under the category 'T-S/C'. I followed the same procedure described above to make sure that the data was coded accurately. I then did the same with the category 'Student Modality', I



counted the time spent on Speaking and Reading, Listening and Writing. I did my best to ensure that all of the activities were coded, timed and counted accurately.

### 3.10 Summary

This study investigates Libyan secondary school EFL teachers' attitudes towards and beliefs about the CLT approach, and the challenges encountered in the classroom implementation thereof. This research goes beyond previous studies, since it utilises triangulation methods to obtain more comprehensive information.

To the best of my knowledge, the present study is the first investigation of teachers' beliefs concerning the use of the CLT approach that tries to identify factors that hinder its implementation. The aims are to fill a gap in the existing research in the area of CLT use in EFL contexts, and to attempt to shed light on the EFL situation in Libya. In addition, it is hoped that information can be provided that will be useful to teachers and educationalists which focus on foreign language teaching.

Also included in the study was a literature review pertaining to the CLT approach as practiced by non-Western EFL teachers, the better to help future EFL curriculum designers utilise the research observations and results in order to refine their output. This study also focused on examining the most common impediments to the implementation of CLT in EFL programmes as experienced in non-Western countries.

The following chapter analyses the data obtained and discusses the findings.

## Chapter 4 Results

### 4.0 Introduction

Applied linguists, educationalists and teachers believe in the implementation of the CLT approach, but face some difficulties in implementing it in their classrooms. Many countries have applied goals in EFL curricula to increase learners' communicative competence. However, teachers follow traditional methods, such as GTM and ALM in their teaching, focusing on form and accuracy. The result is a focus on grammar. The reason, as reported by the participants in this study, is the result of some challenges facing teachers when implementing CLT activities in their classrooms (see Chapter Two).

In this chapter, an analysis of the data concerning Libyan EFL secondary school teachers' beliefs about and attitudes towards CLT, the factors influencing them with regard to the classroom implementation thereof, and data concerning their classroom practice is presented. As mentioned previously, a new curriculum was adopted in Libya in 2000 (see Phillips et al. 2002a; 2002b; 2008; 2008a), which focussed on linguistic structures together with other aspects of communicative competence, with the aim of developing not only accuracy, but also fluency and communication skills. The majority of Libyan teachers indicate that, in English classes, the language is practised but communicative activities are neglected (Orafi and Borg, 2009; McCormack, 2010; Elabbar, 2011; Shiba, 2011). Listening and speaking skills are ignored in both the classroom and in assessments, which concentrate on vocabulary acquisition, dialogue, spelling and rules of grammar. Moreover, teachers are seldom offered training in CLT methodology and, when training does occur, it focuses on theory and there is no consideration of classroom practice or teaching methodology (Orafi and Borg, 2009; McCormack, 2010; Elabbar, see also sections, 2.12.3; 2.12.4).

As discussed in Chapter 3, the data for the present study were collected using a questionnaire survey completed by 24 Libyan EFL teachers, interviews and classroom observations. These instruments were used to elicit information regarding teachers' understanding and implementation of CLT, and the challenges facing them in its practical use. In addition, the COLT (communicative orientation of language teaching) scheme was used to observe the same 24 classrooms (see Chapter Three).

This chapter first presents the results of the classroom observation in section 4.1.1, and

information derived from the interviews is given in section 4.1.2. Finally, the results of the questionnaire survey are provided in section 4.1.3, preceded by a description of how the data analysis was conducted.

#### 4.1 Data Analysis

Cohen et al defined data analysis as the “reduction of copious amounts of written data to manageable and comprehensible proportions”. The present data were analysed using both quantitative and qualitative methods. Cohen et al. reported that presenting “all the relevant data from various data streams”, in this case classroom observations, interviews and questionnaires, can “provide a collective answer to the research questions”. Cohen et al. described this approach as “very useful” for presenting and organising data because it “returns the reader to the driving concerns of the research (Cohen et al., 2007: 448 – 475).

##### 4.1.1 Classroom Observations

This portion presents descriptive and statistical results of the analysis of the classroom observations.

Classroom observation data were recorded according to the Communicative Orientation of Language Teaching (COLT) protocol, with Part A consisting of three categories (see Chapter 3). Percentage calculations are presented in tables, and are followed by an analysis of the data. A brief summary and a discussion will be presented at the end of this chapter.

In reporting the results of classroom observation, the results are given in the order in which they were coded. One example is according to COLT Part A for the three categories. I will start with participant organisation, content and student modality. These categories are briefly defined and discussed.

Two classroom observations were made for each group of teachers. Observations one and two were analysed separately, and were then combined to include information regarding the teachers’ behaviour. In some cases, no important differences were found for the same teacher in observations one and (P: 80) two. However, there were differences among teachers regarding the amount of time they spent on each of the COLT subcategories. Two hypotheses were formulated:

- 1- Teachers who were educationally trained implement the CLT approach more than those who were non-educationally-trained.
- 2- Teachers with high and medium levels of experience would implement the CLT approach more than would those with least experience.

#### 4.1.1.1 Participant Organisation:

Participant organisation, as discussed in Chapter Three (see also Spada and Frohlich, 1995: 15) refers to the way in which students are organised. It is divided into the following subcategories: T-S/C, S-S/C ('T' refers to teacher, 'S' refers to Student, and 'C' refers to Class and 'Choral'), and Pair (see Chapter Three). It is important to determine whether this organisation affects the classroom interaction between teachers and students, and how classrooms in Libya are affected. The data are organised as follows: All activities that were done by all the students and guided by the teacher were coded as Teacher-Student/Class. If activities were done by two students or one student and the class, I coded them as Student-Student/Class. Then I listed the activities provided for the participants that took place during the class to ensure that all the activities were coded. I then placed a check mark (✓) for the relevant category in COLT; for example, when students were answering comprehension questions about the reading, I put a check mark under the category 'Class' and under 'T-S/C', as the activity was a complete class activity led by the teacher in which the teacher asks individual students to answer the questions. As mentioned earlier, according to 'Participant Organisation', there are three categories: 'Class', 'Group' and 'Individual'. Class is subdivided into 'T-S/C' (Teacher to Student or to Class), 'S-S/C' (Student to Student or to Class) and 'Choral'. I did the same for all the activities. I then noted the time spent on each activity under the relevant category. I recorded the time spent on all activities separately; thus, if the first activity started at 8:30 and the next activity started at 8: 35, this activity took five minutes of classroom time. After I finished the list of all the activities and placed check marks (✓) under the relevant categories in the COLT Observation Scheme, I calculated the time spent according to each category, sub-category and activity. I then divided the minutes spent on each activity by the total amount of classroom time, and multiplied the result by one hundred to get a percentage of the time spent on that activity as an entire classroom activity under the category 'T-S/C'.

Firstly, the data will be presented according to the teachers' levels of experience and training. The amount of time that the participants spent on the participant organisation subcategories

was used to measure the CLT techniques that the teachers used in the classroom. The amount of time teachers spent on Teacher-Student/Class activities was used to measure the teachers' non-use of CLT techniques.

The Kruskal-Wallis Statistical Test was utilised for the comparison of the participation of both experienced-trained and inexperienced-trained teachers across; TC/TS or Teacher to Class, Teacher to Student, SC or Student to Class, S or Student and Pair.

The Kruskal-Wallis Test is used to determine the time spent by teachers on these COLT subcategories. It is hypothesised that there will be differences in the amount of time teachers spent on one subcategory compared to others within the groups. The test is applied to determine whether the time spent on the COLT subcategories is correlated with teachers' levels of experience. Secondly, the I-Wilcoxon Signed Rank Test is used to determine the real difference in the amount of time spent on Teacher-Student/Class activities compared to the amount of time spent on Student- Student/Class, Choral, Group and Individual activities in order to discover whether the teachers' levels of experience affect the implementation of the CLT approach in the classroom.

Table 4.1 Shows Participant organisation of educationally trained-experience teachers and non-educationally trained-experience teachers.

	TC/ TS	SC	S	Pair		TC/ TS	SC	S	Pair
Educationally trained-high-experience	75%	100%	33%	100%	Non-educationally trained-high-experience	11%	0%	33%	0%
Educationally trained-medium-experience	13%	0%	33%	0%	Non-educationally trained-medium-experience	22%	0%	33%	0%
Educationally trained-low-experience	12%	0%	34%	0%	Non-educationally trained-low-experience	67%	100%	34%	100%
The Kruskal-Wallis Statistic (p-value)	114.752 (P=0.00)	0.000 (P=1.000)	0.000 (P=1.000)	0.000 (P=1.000)	The Kruskal-Wallis Statistic (p-value)	79.230 (P=0.00)	0.000 (P=1.000)	0.000 (P=1.000)	0.000 (P=1.000)

Table 4.1 shows the significant differences in participant organisation spent by teachers who are educationally trained with high, medium and low levels of experience and those with high, medium and low levels of training who are non-educationally-trained with regard to TC/TS (Teacher to Class or Teacher to Student), SC (Student to Class), S (Student) and Pair. Significant differences were observed in the Teacher to Class or Teacher to Student (P=0.000) category. The difference of time spent by the teachers on TC/ TS, is because the percentage (75%) of educationally trained-high-experienced teachers spent more significant time than that of educationally-trained teachers with medium and low levels of experience (13%).

Non-educationally trained-experienced teachers also showed a significant difference in the amount of time spent by teachers with regard to the Teacher to Class or Teacher to Student category (P=0.000). The results show a high significant time regarding non-educationally trained-low experience teachers, which is a higher percentage than that of teachers who are

non-educationally trained-high-experienced. Teachers who were not trained in non-educationally trained-low-experienced exhibited a significant difference in 'TC/ TS' (67%), which is significantly higher than the percentages for non-educationally trained-high-experienced teachers (11%) and for non-educationally trained teachers with medium levels of experience (22%). This may mean that Teacher to Class or Teacher to Student organisation is predominant among non-educationally trained teachers with low experience and among non-educationally trained, highly experienced teachers than it is among other groups of participants. We now turn to the distribution of the type of participation by educationally trained-experienced teachers.

Table 4.2 Shows Participant Organisation by Educationally Trained-Experienced Teachers

	TC/TS	SC	S	Pair
Mean %	63.4	5.2	25.1	8.5
The Kruskal-Wallis Statistic (p-value)	15.111 (P=0.012)			

Table 4.2 shows a significant difference across the COLT subcategories for educationally trained-experienced teachers regarding Teacher to Class or Teacher to Student, or Student to Class, or Student and Pair. The p-value is below 0.05 (P=0.012). Therefore, it can be concluded that there is a significant difference in the percentage for participant organisation for educationally trained-experienced teachers. The percentages show that 63.4% of educationally trained-experienced teachers control all the activities in the classroom, including the activities of talking to individual students and to the entire class. This is significantly higher than the percentages for the activities of Student to Class (5.2%), Student (25.1%) and Pairs (8.5%). This shows that the educationally trained-high-experienced teachers preferred to control the classroom. Overall, educationally trained-experienced teachers preferred the Teacher to Class or Teacher to Student category, followed by Student,

then Pair, and the least preferred activity was Student to Class. The table below shows participant organisation by non-educationally experience-trained teachers.

Table 4.3 Shows Participant Organisation for Non-Educationally Trained–Experience Teachers

	TC/ TS	SC	S	Pai r
Mean %	72.6	1.2	22. 1	4.3
The Kruskal-Wallis Statistic (p-value)	8.321 (P=0.027)			

Table 4.3 shows a significant difference in terms of participant organisation for non-educationally trained-experienced teachers in the subcategories Teacher to Class or Teacher to Student, Student to Class, Student and Pair, as shown by the Kruskal-Wallis Test (P=0.027). The percentages in the table above show that significance occurs because there are 72.6% of non-educationally experienced-trained teachers in the subcategories Teacher to Class or Teacher to Student. This means that the teachers controlled the classroom, including activities such as talking to individual students and to the class as a whole. This percentage is significantly higher than those for Student to Class (1.2%), Student (22.1%) and Pairs (4.3%). As with educationally trained-high-experienced teachers, this table shows that that the non-educationally trained-experienced teachers also preferred to control the classroom, including the activities of talking to individual students and to the class. In addition, although the individual participation of students occurred, this was not as prevalent as was Teacher to Class or Teacher to Student interaction. This could be because they are more focused on language forms than on other activities. Even though their priority is language forms and not ‘other topics’, they still ensure that the students are able to cope with what they are teaching by being aware of them as a class and as individuals. Overall, both educationally trained-



experienced and non-educationally trained-experienced teachers preferred Teacher to Class or Teacher to Student activities, followed by Student activities, then Pair, with the least preferred being Student to Class.

Table 4.4 Shows Participant Organisation by Educationally Trained, Experienced Teachers and Non-Educationally Trained, Experienced Teachers

	TC/ TS	SC	S	Pair
Educationally trained-experienced teachers	63.4	5.2	25.1	8.5
Non-educationally trained-experienced teachers	72.6	1.2	22.1	4.3
The Mann-Whitney U Statistic (p-value)	0.007 (P=0.931 )	0.566 (P=0.452 0)	0.161 (P=0.688 5)	0.312 (P=0.576 6)

Table 4.4 shows a comparison of participant organisation by educationally trained-experienced and non-educationally trained-experienced participants concerning the COLT subcategories of Teacher to Class, Teacher to Student, Student to Class, Student and Pair.

For Teacher to Class and Teacher to Student, the p-value is 0.931, which indicates that there is no significant difference in participant organisation by educationally trained-experienced, teachers and non-educationally trained-experienced teachers.

For Student to Class, the p-value is above 0.05 (P=0.452), which indicates that the first hypothesis is accepted, and that there is no significant difference in the participant organisation of educationally trained-experienced teachers and of non-educationally trained-experienced teachers in terms of the Student to Class category.

For the Student category, the p-value is above 0.05 (P=0.6885), which indicates the first null hypothesis is accepted, and that there is no significant difference in the participant organisation by experienced, trained teachers and trained but inexperienced teachers with

regard to the Student category. The table above shows that the experienced, trained respondents scored 25.1%, whereas the trained, inexperienced participants scored 22.1%.

For the subcategory Pair, the p-value is 0.5766, which is above 0.05. This means that there is no significant difference in participant organisation by educationally trained-experienced and participants and non-educationally trained-experienced participants. The table above shows that the educationally trained-experienced respondents obtained 8.5%, whereas the non-educationally trained-experienced participants obtained 4.3%.

The table above shows that both educationally trained and non-educationally trained high experience participants preferred the Teacher to Class or Teacher to Student subcategories to those of Student to Class, Student or Pair. Ideally, one of the goals of Teacher to Class or Student activities is to have every student participate in the same manner or at the same rate.

The findings indicate that there is no significant difference in the COLT subcategory as a result of the educationally trained-experienced groups. Therefore, we can conclude that there is no evidence to support the contribution of experience and training to the difference in time spent on these activities by the two groups.

Figure 4.1 Graphical Presentation of the Participant Organisation of Educationally Trained-Experienced Teachers and Non-Educationally Trained-Experienced Teachers

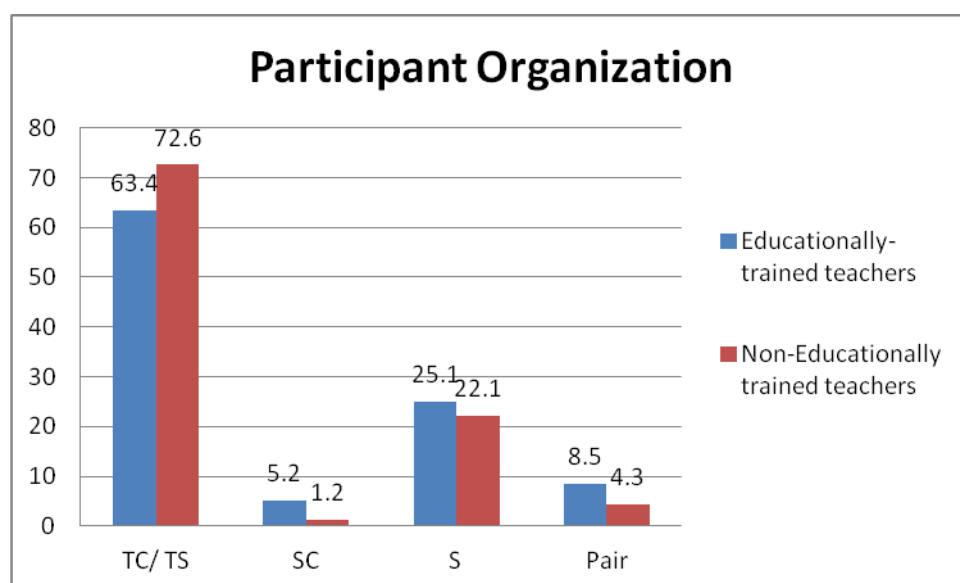


Figure 4.1 shows the graphical presentation of the comparison of participant organisation by educationally trained-experienced and non-educationally trained-experienced participants in the subcategories Teacher to Class or Teacher to Student, Student to Class, Student and Pair. The graphical presentation also shows that educationally trained-experienced participants were also aware that teaching must not revolve only around the Teacher to Class or Teacher to Student aspects, but must also include other methods such as Student to Class, Student and Pair. Following the Teacher to Class or Teacher to Student category was that of the Student as an individual, then that of Pair.

Learning in pairs often boosts the interest and willingness of the students, since it enables them to share their eagerness to learn, which they might find embarrassing to express in the classroom. However, teachers do not often use this process because they want to know the struggles of their students individually so they are able to correct them instantly. This corresponds to the interview question “Is it possible for students to interact in English with each other in pairs/groups?” The majority of the experienced teachers, both those educationally trained-experienced and non-educationally trained-experienced participants indicated that it would be possible for students to interact in Arabic (see section, 2.11).

The next category is Student Class Organisation. The amount of time spent is 5.2% for educationally trained-experienced teachers, and 1.2% for non-educationally trained-experienced teachers, this was often discouraged because the students seemed to tolerate each other's mistakes.

The reason that teachers implement Teacher to Class or Teacher to Student categories more often than they do Student to Class, Student and Pair, is that the teachers are aware of the limitations of the students; thus, correction be provided by the teachers. In the interview question "How often do you correct your students' errors?" the teachers responded that they corrected the errors identified immediately.

According to these results, we concluded that there is no evidence to support the contribution of experience to the difference in time spent on the COLT subcategories by the two groups of participants.

The following section deals with teachers' interviews. Interview questions make it easy to map the teachers' answers to their classroom interaction and to refer to their old methods of teaching.

In the interview question "What do errors represent?" the teachers saw errors such as grammar, fluency problems and other related items as providing a 'bad model'. However, with regard to the interview question "Is it possible to ignore students' errors during a communicative activity?" the teachers responded that they often ignored grammatical errors during a communicative activity because learning progresses one step a time; however, they kept an eye on these errors and corrected them if the students repeated them.

Excerpt 4.1 shows a conversation between the teacher and student:

(4.1)

*T: What do you do during summer?? (The teacher addresses the students).*

*S: Going swim in sea.*

*T: OK. 'In summer I go to the sea to swim'. What else?*

*T: You Ahmad.*

*S: I am visit my relatives.*

*T: 'I usually visit my relatives in summer.'*

‘Teacher to Student’ is clearly evident in the above conversation. The teacher allows the participation of a student then, once the answer has been given, the teacher allows others to participate as well, which makes participation among the students equal.

Excerpt 4.2 shows a conversation between the teacher and class:

(4.2)

*T: What is meant by media? (The teacher asks the students to check the first paragraph to find the answer).*

*(The teacher points to a student).*

*S: TV or radio teacher.*

*T: OK. What else? Please.*

*S: Internet.*

*T: OK. Good. How about news?*

*T: We listen to news from TV, radio, etc. Is that correct students?*

*SS: Yes teacher, yes teacher.*

This conversation is also a clear example of ‘Teacher to Class’ participation wherein the students answer the questions posed by the teacher, and they are able to participate equally and freely.

#### 4.1.1.2 Content

Content refers to ‘read’, ‘written’, or ‘listened’ by teacher and student (Spada and Frohlich, 1995). It is divided into two subcategories, Language and Other Topics. The subcategory Language is subdivided into three categories, Form, Function and ‘Discourse’. If the teaching focused on grammar, pronunciation and vocabulary, I coded it as Form. Communicative activities were coded as Function and, if the activities dealt with sentence order, I coded them as Discourse. Silent reading and dialogue were coded under Other Topics.

The amount of time they spent on the content subcategories was used to measure teachers’ use of the CLT approach. The amount of time teachers spent on Form was used to measure teachers’ behaviour towards non-use of the CLT approach.

In order to compare the content taught by educationally trained-experienced teachers with varying levels of experience in the categories of Form, Function, Discourse and Other Topics, the Kruskal-Wallis Statistical Test was used, since the goal was to compare three or more variables.

The Kruskal-Wallis Statistical Test was also utilised to compare significant differences in each of the COLT subcategories for educationally trained-high-experienced teachers, educationally trained-medium-experienced teachers those with educationally trained-low-experience, and for non-educationally trained-high-experienced teachers, teachers who had a medium amount of experience but who had not been educationally trained in education, and those who had low teaching experience and who had not been educationally trained.

In order to compare the content taught by educationally trained-experienced teachers and those who had non-educationally trained-experience in the categories of Form, Function, Discourse and Other Topics, the Mann-Whitney U statistic was used as the goal was to compare two variables.

Table 4.5 Shows Content Taught by Educationally Trained-Experienced Teachers and by Non-Experience-Trained Teachers

Level of Experience	Language			Other Topics	Level of Training	Language			Other Topics
	Form	Function	Discourse	Percentage		Form	Function	Discourse	Percentage
Educationally trained-high-experience teachers	50%	100%	100%	66%	Non-educationally trained-high-experience teachers	33%	0%	0%	20%
Educationally trained-medium-experience teachers	25%	0%	0%	17%	Non-educationally trained-medium-experience teachers	33%	0%	50%	20%
Educationally trained-low-experience teachers	25%	0%	0%	17%	Non-educationally trained-low-experience teachers	34%	100%	50%	60%
The Mann-Whitney Statistic (p-value)	18.750 (P=0.000)	0.000 (P=1.000)	0.000 (P=1.000)	74.631 (P=0.000)	The Mann-Whitney Statistic (p-value)	0.000 (P=1.000)	0.000 (P=1.000)	75.000 (P=0.000)	48.000 (P=0.000)

Table 4.5 suggests a significant difference among the educationally trained teachers in relation to “Form” and “Other topics”, and in relation to “Discourse” and “Other topics” for the non-educationally trained teachers. A significant difference was observed for Form ( $P=0.000$ ) and Other Topics ( $P=0.000$ ). As observed, the difference in teaching the subcategory Form is significantly higher for educationally trained-high-experienced teachers (50%) than it is for educationally trained-medium and low levels of experience (25%). With regard to Other Topics, a significant difference was observed because 66% of those teaching Other Topics were educationally trained-high-experienced teachers, which is significantly higher than the percentage of educationally trained teachers with medium or low levels of experience (17%).

With regard to Form, Function, Discourse and Other Topics, a significant difference was observed for Discourse ( $P=0.000$ ) and Other Topics ( $P=0.000$ ) among non-educationally trained-high-experienced teachers, non-educationally trained-medium-experience and non-educationally trained-low-experienced teachers. As has been observed, the difference for Discourse was because the percentage of non-educationally trained teachers with medium levels of experience and non-educationally trained teachers with low experience (50%) teaching Discourse is higher than that of non-educationally trained teachers with high levels of experience (0%), while a significance difference for Other Topics was present because a higher percentage of non-educationally trained teachers with low levels of experience teach Other Topics (60%) than the percentage of non-educationally trained, highly experienced teachers and those with a medium amount of experience who were non-educationally trained (20%).

Table 4.6 Shows Content Taught by Educationally Trained-Experienced Teachers

Mean/ Test	Language			Other Topics
	Form	Function	Discourse	Percentage
Mean	29.2	4.2	8.3	58.3
The Kruskal-Wallis Statistic (p-value)	12.990 ( $P=0.014$ )			



Table 4.6 shows a significant difference in the content taught by educationally trained-experienced teachers in terms of Form, Function, Discourse and Other Topics. The p-value is below 0.05 ( $P=0.014$ ). Therefore, we can conclude that there is a significant difference in the percentage of content taught by educationally trained-experienced teachers. This significant difference occurs because the percentages of trained, experienced teachers who teach language in terms of Form (29.2%) and those who teach Other Topics (58.3%) are statistically higher than the percentages of those who teach language in terms of Function (4.2%) and Discourse (8.3%). This shows that the educationally trained-experienced teachers preferred to explain vocabulary, practice linguistic structures or practice pronunciation with their students and to make them listen to a dialogue or a text from a tape or read by the teacher, to sing and to read silently. Educationally trained-experienced teachers are aware that students need to understand the sentence structure and the specific grammatical rules of the language being taught to them, since this is the most difficult part of learning a certain language. Thus, their focus must pertain the content of their teaching in this area, as well as to the time it takes to teach the language's Form. On the other hand, in addition to prioritising Form, they also prioritise Other Topics, as they know this will help the students to improve and practice what they are being taught in an attractive and exciting manner. Educationally trained-experienced teachers are aware that leisure activities like singing, reading and oral presentations help the students to apply what they heard have learnt and to have their mistakes corrected.

Table 4.7 Shows Content Taught by Non-Educationally Trained-Experienced Teachers

Mean/ Test	Language			Other Topics
	Form	Function	Discourse	Percentage
Mean	35.3	2.2	4.2	58.3
The Kruskal-Wallis Statistic (p-value)	14.667 ( $P=0.019$ )			

Table 4.7 shows a significant difference in the content taught by non-educationally trained-experienced teachers in terms of Form, Function, Discourse and Other Topics. The p-value is below 0.05 ( $P=0.019$ ); this means that the second hypothesis is also rejected. Therefore, we

can conclude that there is a significant difference in the percentage of content taught by non-educationally trained-experienced teachers. Based on the table above, this significance difference occurs because the percentages of non-educationally trained-experienced teachers who teach language in terms of Form (35.3%) and those who teach Other Topics (58.3%) are statistically higher than the percentages of those who teach language in terms of Function (2.2%) and Discourse (4.2%). As with educationally trained-experienced teachers, non-educationally trained-experienced teachers also prefer to explain vocabulary, to practice linguistic structures and pronunciation with their students than to make the students listen, sing, read silently and make oral presentations. Non-educationally trained-experienced teachers, just like the educationally trained-experienced ones, are also aware that students need to understand the sentence structure and specific grammatical rules of the language being taught to them. However, by observing the percentages, 35.3% of non-educationally trained-experienced teachers have a greater focus on teaching language form. This is why they believe their focus should pertain to the content of the teaching of language form. As with educationally trained, experienced teachers, non-educationally trained experienced teachers prioritise Other Topics in the belief that that this may help students to improve their ability to learn the language.

Table 4.8 Shows Content of Tasks Taught by Educationally Trained-Experienced Teachers

Level of Experience and Training/ Test	Language			Other Topics
	Form	Function	Discourse	Percentage
Educationally trained-experienced teachers	29.2	4.2	8.3	58.3
Non-educationally trained-experienced teachers	35.3	2.2	4.2	58.3
The Mann-Whitney U Statistic (p-value)	0.053 (P=0.817 )	1.048 (P=0.305 )	0.328 (P=0.566)	0.922 (P=0.991)

Table 4.8 shows a comparison of the content taught by educationally trained-experienced and non-educationally trained-experienced teachers in terms of language Form, Function, Discourse and Other Topics. With regard to Form, the p-value is above 0.05 ( $P=0.8178$ ), which indicates that the first hypothesis is accepted and that there is no significant difference between the content taught by educationally trained-experienced and non-educationally trained-experienced teachers in terms of Form.

With regard to Function, the p-value is above 0.05 ( $P=0.3059$ ), which indicates that there is no significant difference between the content taught by educationally trained-experienced teachers (4.2%) and non-educationally trained-experienced teachers (2.2%) who teach language in terms of Function.

With regard to Discourse, the p-value is above 0.05 ( $P=0.5669$ ), which also indicates that there is no significant difference between the content taught by educationally trained-experienced teachers (8.3%) and non-educationally trained-experienced (4.2%) teachers in terms of Discourse.

Lastly, with regard to Other Topics, the p-value is above 0.05 ( $P=0.991$ ), which means that there is no significant difference between the content taught by educationally trained-experienced teachers (58.3%) and non-educationally trained-experienced (58.3%) teachers in terms of Other Topics.

These results reveal that both educationally trained-experienced teachers and non-educationally trained-experienced teachers did not score differently with regard to the subcategory of content that they taught to their students. Both groups preferred to focus on linguistic structures or the grammar and pronunciation of the students than to make the students participate through listening, singing, reading silently and making oral presentations (see section, 2.1).

The results match the participants' responses to the interview questions. When they were asked "Do you explain grammar rules or do you teach them implicitly through pattern drilling?" and "Is it possible to teach grammar through communicative activities without explanation or drilling?" both educationally trained-experienced and non-educationally trained-experienced teachers responded that they teach students through drills, and that it is impossible to teach just one aspect, which means that both methods occur simultaneously. At the same time, these results also reflect their responses to the interview question "Do you

think the teacher's role in the foreign language classroom is to provide target language input?" to which they responded that their role in the foreign language classroom is to provide target language input.

On the other hand, activities like singing, dancing and other leisure activities have been proved to improve the ability of the students to express their feelings and emotions through the language that they were being taught.

Figure 4.2 Graphical presentation of the content taught by Educationally Trained-Experienced teachers and Non-Educationally trained-Experienced Teachers

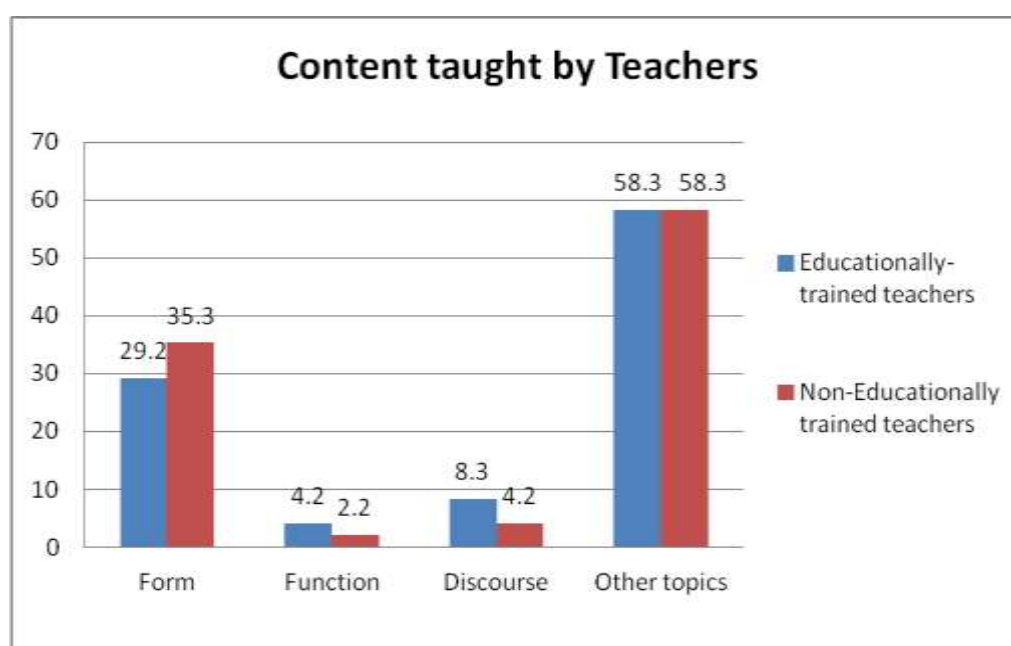


Figure 4.2 shows the graphical representation of the comparison of content taught by educationally trained-experienced teachers and non-educationally trained-experienced participants with regard to Form, Function, Discourse and Other Topics. The above figure shows that more non-educationally trained-experienced participants taught language in terms of Form than did educationally trained-experienced participants. However, the educationally trained-experienced teachers also focused on Function and Discourse.

Table 4.9 Content of Tasks in Lessons Taught by Educationally Trained-Experienced Teachers

Mean/ Test	Language			Other Topics
	Form	Function	Discourse	Percentage
Mean	29.17	0.5	4.2	66.13
The Kruskal-Wallis Statistic (p-value)	13.820 (P0.016)			

Table 4.9 shows a significant difference for the content of tasks taught by educationally trained-experienced teachers in terms of language Form, Function, Discourse and Other Topics. The p-value is below 0.05 ( $P=0.016$ ), which indicates that the second hypothesis is rejected. The significant difference is because the percentages of the content of tasks taught by educationally trained-experienced teachers are statistically higher in terms of Form (29.17%) and Other Topics (66.13%) than they are for language in terms of Function (0.5%) and Discourse (4.2%). Since the focus of their teaching is more on Form and Other Topics, it is expected that the content of their lessons is also more focused on Form and Other Topics. Even though the percentage (58.3%) of educationally trained-low-experience teach language through Other Topics, such as listening to a dialogue on tape or read by the teacher, singing, reading silently and oral presentations more than they do via Function and Discourse, the result shows that some of those teachers who teach language also include Other Topics in their lesson plans. This shows that, even though they focus on Form, Function and Discourse, the idea is that Other Topics really help students learn. This is why the content of tasks in lessons on Form, Function and Discourse is always accompanied by Other Topics. Overall, they prefer Other Topics, followed by language in terms of Form, language in terms of Discourse and language in terms of Function.

Table 4.10 Content of Tasks in Lessons Taught by Non-educationally Trained-Experienced Teachers

Mean/ Test	Language			Other Topics
	Form	Function	Discourse	Percentage
Mean	48.9	4.8	8.4	37.9
The Kruskal-Wallis Statistic (p-value)	13.324 (P=0.010)			

Table 4.10 shows that p-value is below 0.05 ( $P=0.010$ ); therefore, the Null hypothesis is rejected. The percentages show that this significant difference is because the percentages of the content of tasks in lessons taught by non-educationally trained-experienced teachers are statistically higher for language in terms of Form (48.9%) and Other Topics (37.9%) than they are for language in terms of Function (4.8%) and Discourse (8.4%). Since the majority of non-educationally trained-experienced teachers teach Form and Other Topics, it is also expected that the content of their lessons will focus more on language in terms of Form and Other Topics. However, unlike educationally trained-experienced teachers, the content of tasks in lessons taught by non-educationally trained-experienced teachers focuses more on language in terms of Form. This indicates that only 37.9% of 58.3% of non-educationally trained-experienced teachers include this in the tasks in their lesson plans, while 48.9% of non-educationally trained-experienced teachers include language in terms of Form in the content of tasks in their lessons. This indicates that, unlike educationally trained-experienced teachers, non-educationally trained-experienced teachers include language in terms of Function, Discourse and Other Topics in the content of tasks in their lessons, and that they still have room for language in terms of Form. Overall, they prefer Form, followed by Other Topics, Discourse and Function.

Table 4.11 Comparison of Content in Lessons Taught by Educationally Trained-Experienced and Non-educationally Trained-Experienced Teachers

Level of Experience and Training/ Test// Value	Language			Other Topics
	Form	Function	Discourse	Percent age
Educationally trained-experience teachers	29.17	0.5	4.2	66.13
Non-educationally trained-experience teachers	48.9	4.8	8.4	37.9
The Mann-Whitney U Statistic (p-value)	0.949 (P=0.0169)	4.347 (P=0.0246)	0.432 (P=0.5110)	0.745 (P=0.046)

Table 4.11 shows a comparison of the content of tasks in lessons; taught by educationally trained-experienced and non-educationally trained-experienced teachers in terms of language Form, Function Discourse and Other Topics. With regard to language in terms of Form, the p-value is below 0.05 (P=0.016). This suggests that there is a significant difference between the content of tasks in lessons taught by educationally trained-experienced and non-educationally trained-experienced teachers in terms of Form.

For language in terms of Function, the p-value is below 0.05 (P=0.024), which indicates that there is a significant difference in the content of tasks in lessons taught by experienced and trained teachers and those taught by non-educationally- trained-experienced teachers in terms of Function. The significant difference is because the percentage (0.5%) of experienced and trained teachers is significantly lower than the percentage (4.8%) of non-educationally-trained-experienced teachers who also include Form in their lessons and teach language in terms of Form (see section 2.4).

For language in terms of Discourse, the p-value is below 0.05 (P=0.5110), which indicates that there is no significant difference between the content in lessons taught by educationally trained-experienced and non-educationally trained-experienced teachers in terms of Discourse. This is because the percentage (4.2%) of the educationally trained-experienced

teachers who have Discourse as content in their lessons is significantly close to the percentage (8.4%) of non-educationally trained- experienced teachers who teach Discourse.

For Other Topics, the difference between educationally trained-experienced (66.13%) and non-educationally trained-experience (37.9%) teachers is statistically different, as the p-value is above 0.05 ( $p=.046$ ). This indicates that the Null hypothesis is rejected.

The above table suggests that both educationally trained-experienced teachers and non-educationally trained-experienced teachers preferred to teach language in terms of Form and Other Topics in their lessons rather than Function and Discourse. However, non-educationally trained-experienced teachers were more likely to prefer teaching language in terms of Form than to include Other Topics in their lessons than were educationally trained-experienced teachers. However, educationally trained-experienced teachers were more likely to include Other Topics in their lessons than were non-educationally trained-experienced teachers.

Non-educationally trained-experienced teachers were more concerned with their students being able to form sentences according to correct linguistic structure and understanding the words they speak. They understood that, in order to learn to speak a language, they need to understand how to form sentences and paragraphs.

On the other hand, educationally trained-experienced teachers were more concerned with having the students listen to a dialogue or a text on tape or read by the teacher, having them sing or read silently using the language being taught, having them make oral presentations, listen when the teacher explains a procedure and when he asks and elicits answers about comprehension of the reading material.

In relation to their responses to the interview question “What role do you assume in your classroom, a provider of knowledge or a guide of students’ activities?”, both educationally trained-experienced teachers and non-educationally trained-experienced teachers responded that they saw their role as someone who provides knowledge in the classroom. As a knowledge provider in the classroom, teachers have to align the content of the tasks in lessons with what they perceive as the best way for the students to learn the language, which is through Form and Other Topics. Overall, both groups preferred Other Topics to language in terms of Form, language in terms of Discourse and language in terms of Function.



The result also reflects their response to the interview question “Which errors do you think you need to correct, those affecting meaning or those affecting language?” to which non-educationally trained-experienced teachers responded that the errors that are in need of correction are those that affect meaning, while experienced and trained participants responded that errors in the areas of meaning and language are both in need of correction.

Function and Discourse are considered least important in terms of content by both educationally trained-experienced teachers and non-educationally trained-experienced teachers. One of the reasons that Function is considered least important is because teachers are aware that it is difficult for the learners to practice the language in a real context.

This reflects on their answers to the interview question “If you aim for communicative competence, how do you focus on accuracy?” The teachers responded that they would correct the identified errors immediately, which reflects on some areas of language in terms of Form. The interview question also elicited the following example:

(4.3)

*T: What is this? (The teacher points to a picture of a mobile phone).*

*SS: Teacher, me teacher.*

*(The teacher points to one student to answer).*

*S: Mobile phone (in Arabic).*

*T: OK, mobile phone.*

*T: Who can spell the letters of mobile phone?*

*SS: Teacher, me teacher.*

*(The teacher selects another student).*

*S: ‘M-o-b-i-l-e p-h-o-n-e’*

*T: Yes, that’s right students ‘m-o-b-i-l-e p-h-o-n-e’*

As observed in this conversation, the teacher pointed out how the words are spelled and pronounced, and the students repeated what the teacher said. One can also observe that the teacher allowed the students to use their visual ability through pictures and let them listen to the pronunciation, thus preparing them to be able to repeat the words independently.

(4.4)

Here is another example from Teacher 4 (non-educationally trained-high-experienced):

*T: What are the nationalities of these countries: Libya, the UK and Iraq, (in Arabic)?*

*SS: Libyan, British and Iraqi (in Arabic).*

*T: OK. The teacher uttered them in English. For Libya, we just add 'an', like this: Libya+an, for UK, it is different, it becomes 'British'. For Iraq, we just add 'i', like this: 'Iraq+i'. (The teacher here uses both L1 and L2).*

The conversation shows the same behaviour as the first, but the teacher uses both the students' first and second languages to explain the words. It can also be seen that the teacher emphasised the Form by explaining the words used for different nationalities (see section 2.4).

Another example is provided by Teacher 6 (educationally trained-low-experience):

(4.5)

*T: Today we study how to form past and present continuous (the teacher uses L1 and then L2).*

*T: OK. It is formed by verb to be + verb + ing. Like: 'I am+ write+ ing on the board now' or I was writing on the board yesterday. Look we need to drop the final 'e' if the verb consists of 'e' like 'write'. It becomes like this: I am 'write+ ing' writing on the board (the teacher explains in Arabic).*

*S: Yes, teacher, verb to be+ verb+ ing*

*T: Also verb to be in present form: am, is, and are, and in the past: was and were.*

The conversation shows the same behaviour as the first two conversations. In the conversation above, the teacher also uses the students' L1 and L2 to emphasise the words and their structure. The students confirm the information given when they respond "be+verb+ing"

#### 4.1.1.3 Student Modality

Student modality refers to what students are doing during the classroom observation. This category is divided into Listening, Speaking, Reading and Writing. These skills were coded in two ways: separately and in combination. If the students listened to the teacher, I coded

Listening alone and Reading alone for silent reading. However, Speaking is not coded alone, and I coded Writing alone when the students copied what was on the board in their classrooms. The reason for separating speaking from other skills was to discover whether speaking was receiving the same amount of focus as other skills, or was receiving more practice. The assumption was that a communicative classroom would spend more time on aural-oral skills in which pupils interact in pairs and groups through different information-gap activities (Sharpe, 2001). Student modality shows the amount of classroom time spent on the four skills. As discussed in Chapter Two, the language-centred methods of teaching, such as GTM and ALM, are used to teach skills separately. In real life, these skills are integrated, and a learner-centred communicative method therefore integrates these skills. Classroom observation revealed teachers' practices regarding the integration or segregation of these skills. I will begin by discussing the results in relation to the teachers' backgrounds in education for the same reasons discussed above, where it was hypothesised that teachers with a background in education will be more learner-centred than will those without. Learner-centred behaviour was measured by the amount of time teachers spent on integrating skills with speaking compared to spending classroom time on one skill at the expense of others, especially of speaking. The same tests were used to look for a significant difference in the amount of time spent on student modality for educationally trained-experienced teachers (see Table 4.12).

Table 4.12 Shows Time Devoted to Language Skills Taught by Educationally Trained-Experienced Teachers

Test/ Value	Speaking			Reading			Listening			Writing		
	pre - (33 )sp eak ing	While speak ing	post - speak ing	pre - read ing	While readin g	post - read ing	pre - list eni ng	While listeni ng	post - liste ning	pre - wri tin g	While writin g	post - writ ing
	7.8		1.0	2.6	45.7	0.5	1.1	4.7			.8	10.3
The Friedman Statistic/ the Wilcoxo n Statistic (p-value)	.9709(P=0.035)			9.883 (P=0.039)			.36216 (P=0.306)			.91848 (P=0.037)		

Table 4.12 shows the results of the statistical tests that were applied, one being the Friedman Statistical Technique for the comparison of three or more related samples simultaneously, and the other the Wilcoxon Statistic for the comparison of two related samples. Since some values are not available for Speaking (pre- and post-), Listening (pre- and while) and Writing (while and pre-), the Wilcoxon Statistic was applied, while the Friedman Statistical Technique was applied for Reading (pre-, while and post-).

This table shows the time percentages devoted by experienced, trained teachers to language skills in terms of Speaking, Reading, Listening and Writing. With regard to Speaking, the p-value is below 0.05 (P=0.035), which indicates that there is a significant difference in the

amount of time devoted by educationally trained-experienced teachers to language skills in terms of Speaking, both before the activity and after the test applied in the table above.

With reference to Reading, the p-value is below 0.05 ( $P=0.039$ ), which indicates that there is a significant difference in the amount of time devoted by educationally trained-experienced teachers to language skills in terms of Reading. This significant difference on time spent on reading increases significantly, from 2.6 minutes to 45.7 minutes 'while' Reading, then falls to 0.5 minutes after the post-test, applied in the table above

For Listening, the p-value is above 0.05 ( $P=0.306$ ), which indicates that there is no significant difference in the amount of time devoted by experienced-trained teachers to language skills in terms of Listening. This significant difference on time spent on Listening increases minimally from 1.1 minutes for the pre- listening to 4.7 minutes 'while' Listening. This indicates that the average time devoted is statistically the same.

With regard to Writing, the p-value is below 0.05 ( $P=0.037$ ), which indicates that there is a significant difference in the amount of time devoted by educationally trained-experienced teachers to language skills in terms of Writing the activity and after the test. It is observed that the average time spent on Writing increases significantly, from 0.8 minutes while in treatment process to 10.3 minutes after Writing.

Overall, the time devoted to Listening by educationally trained-experienced teachers is the same across time, but is significantly different with regard to Speaking, Reading and Writing.

This result shows that educationally trained-experienced teachers spent more time on Reading than on Speaking, Listening and Writing.

Statistical techniques were also applied to non-educationally trained-experienced teachers, as seen in the table below. The Friedman Statistical Technique is for the simultaneous comparison of three or more related samples, while the Wilcoxon Statistic is for the comparison of two related samples. Again, some values were not available, particularly for Speaking (pre- and post-), Listening (pre- and while) and Writing (while and pre-). Thus, the Wilcoxon Statistic will be applied to these categories, while the Friedman Statistical Technique will be used for reading (pre-, while and post-).

Table 4.13 Shows Time Devoted to Language Skills Taught by Non-educationally Trained-Experienced Teachers

Test/ Value	Speaking			Reading			Listening			Writing		
	pre- spea king	Whil e spea king	post- speak ing	pre - rea din g	Whil e readi ng	post- readi ng	pre- liste nin g	Whi le liste nin g	post - liste nin g	pre - wri tin g	Whi le writi ng	post - writ ing
	11.5		3.3	9.1	48.3	0.9	0.8	9.0			2.6	14.5
The Friedman Statistical Test/ the Wilcoxon Statistical Test (p-value)	.94303 (P=0.028)			9.2867 (P=0.031)			.83585 (P=0.037)			.927701 (P=0.032)		

Table 4.13 shows the time percentages devoted by non-educationally trained-experienced teachers to language skills in terms of Speaking, Reading, Listening and Writing. With regard to Speaking, the p-value is below 0.05 (P=0.028), which indicates that there is a significant difference in the amount of time devoted by non-educationally trained-experienced teachers to language skills in terms of Speaking the activity and after the test. The significant difference occurs because the average time spent on Speaking decreases significantly, from 11.5 minutes to 3.3 minutes after the post-test.

In terms of Reading, the p-value is below 0.05 (P=0.031), which indicates that there is a significant difference in the amount of time devoted by non-educationally trained-experienced teachers with regard to Reading the activity and after the test.

For Listening, the p-value is below 0.05 ( $P=0.037$ ), which indicates that there is a significant difference in the amount of time devoted by non-educationally trained-experienced teachers to language skills in terms of Listening before the activity and after the test. The significant difference is because the average time spent on Listening increases significantly, from 0.8 minutes to 9.0 while Listening.

With reference to Writing, the p-value is below 0.05 ( $P=0.032$ ), which indicates that there is a significant difference in the amount of time devoted by non-educationally trained-experienced teachers to language skills in terms of Writing the activity and after the test. The significant difference occurs because the average time spent while Writing is 2.6 minutes, but then increases significantly to 14.5 after Listening.

This result also shows that even non-educationally trained-experienced teachers spend more time on Reading than they do on Speaking, Listening and Writing.

Overall, the time devoted to language skills taught by non-educationally trained-experienced teachers with regard to Speaking, Reading, Listening and Writing is significantly different across time.

Table 4.14 Shows Average Time Devoted to Language Skills Taught by Educationally Trained-Experienced and Non-educationally Trained-Experienced Teachers

Level of Experience/ Test/ Value	Speaking	Reading	Listening	Writing	Level of Training/ Test/ Value	Speaking	Reading	Listening	Writing
Educationally trained-high-experience teachers	100%	50%	0%	100%	Non-educationally trained-high-experience teachers	0%	17%	0%	0%
Educationally trained-medium-experience teachers	0%	25%	100%	0%	Non-educationally trained-medium-experience teachers	0%	33%	0%	50%
Educationally trained-low-experience teachers	0%	25%	0%	0%	Non-educationally trained-low-experience teachers	100%	50%	100%	50%
The Kruskal-Wallis Statistical Technique (p-value)	0.000 (p=1.000)	18.750 (P=0.00)	0.000 (p=1.000)	0.000 (p=1.000)	The Kruskal-Wallis Statistic (p-value)	0.000 (p=1.000)	24.510 (p=0.00)	0.000 (p=1.000)	75.000 (p=0.00)

Table 4.14 shows a significant difference in the average time devoted to language skills taught by educationally trained-experienced teachers in terms of Speaking, Reading, Listening and Writing. A significant difference is observed for Reading ( $p=0.000$ ) because the percentage (50%) of educationally trained-high-experienced teachers is significantly



higher than that of educationally trained teachers with medium and low levels of experience (25%). This means that educationally trained-high-experienced teachers tend to devote a lot of time to Reading, compared to educationally trained teachers with medium and low levels of experience.

With regard to educationally trained-high-experienced teachers and educationally trained teachers with medium and low levels of experience, a significant difference is observed for Reading ( $P=0.000$ ) and Writing. The significant difference occurs in Reading because non-educationally trained teachers with low levels of experience are more likely to devote much of their time to Reading than are non-educationally trained-high-experienced teachers (17%) and non-educationally trained-high-experienced teachers (33%). In terms of writing, 50% of non-educationally trained teachers with low and medium levels of experience devote their time to Writing, which is a significantly higher percentage than that of non-educationally trained-high-experienced teachers (0%).

Table 4.15 Shows Average Time Devoted to Language Skills Taught by Educationally Trained-Experienced Teachers

Mean of pre-, while and post-	Speaking	Reading	Listening	Writing
Sum	8.8	48.8	5.8	11.1
The Kruskal-Wallis Statistic (p-value)	12.987 ( $P=0.014$ )			

Table 4.15 shows a significant difference in the average time devoted to language skills by the educationally trained- experienced teachers in terms of Speaking, Reading, Listening and Writing. The p-value is below 0.05 ( $P=0.014$ ); therefore, we can conclude that the average time devoted to language skills taught by educationally trained-high-experienced teachers is significantly different for Speaking, Reading, Listening and Writing. As observed, this significant difference occurs because the average time devoted to Reading is statistically higher (48.8 minutes) than that devoted to Speaking (average time 8.8 minutes), Listening

(average time 5.8 minutes) and Writing (average time 11.1 minutes). Overall, educationally trained-high-experienced teachers tend to spend most of their time on Reading, followed by Writing, then speaking, and the least amount of time is spent on Listening.

Table 4.16 Shows Average Time Devoted to Language Skills Taught by Non-educationally Trained-Experienced Teachers

Mean of pre-, while and post-	Speaking	Reading	Listening	Writing
Sum	14.8	58.3	9.8	17.1
The Kruskal-Wallis Statistic (p-value)	9.534 (P=0.032)			

Table 4.16 shows a significant difference in the average amount of time devoted to language skills taught by non-educationally trained-experienced teachers in terms of Speaking, Reading, Listening and Writing. The p-value is below 0.05 ( $P=0.039$ ), which means that the average time devoted to language skills non-educationally trained-experienced teachers is significantly different for Speaking, Reading, Listening and Writing. The table above shows that this significant difference occurs because the average time devoted to Reading is statistically higher (58.3 minutes) than that dedicated to Speaking (average time of 14.8 minutes), Listening (average time of 9.8 minutes) and Writing (average time of 17.1 minutes). Overall, non-educationally trained-experienced teachers tend to spend a significant amount of time on Reading, followed by Writing, then Speaking and, finally, Listening.

Table 4.17 Shows Average Time Devoted to Language Skills Taught by Non-educationally Trained-Experienced Teachers

	Speaking	Reading	Listening	Writing
Educationally trained-experience teachers	8.8	48.8	5.8	11.1
Non-educationally trained-experience teachers	14.8	58.3	9.8	17.1
The Mann-Whitney U Statistic (p-value)	0.127 (P=0.7213)	0.005 (P=0.9455)	0.359 (P=0.5490)	0.107 (P=0.7439)

Table 4.17 shows a comparison of the average time devoted by educationally trained-experienced and non-educationally trained-experienced teachers to language skills in terms of Speaking, Reading and Writing and Listening. For speaking, the p-value is above 0.05 (P=0.721), which indicates that there is no significant difference in the average time devoted by educationally trained-experienced and non-educationally trained-experienced teachers with regard to language skills in terms of Speaking, because educationally trained-experienced teachers have an average time devoted to Speaking of 8.8 minutes, which is statistically close to the 14.8 minutes devoted by non-educationally trained-experienced teachers.

For Reading, the p-value is above 0.05 (P=0.9455), which indicates that there is no significant difference in the average time devoted by educationally trained-experienced and non-educationally trained-experienced teachers to language skills in terms of Reading, because educationally trained-experienced teachers have an average time devoted to Reading of 48.8 minutes, which is statistically close to the 58.3 minutes devoted by non-educationally trained-experienced teachers.

With regard to Listening, the p-value is above 0.05 (P=0.5490), which indicates that there is no significant difference in the average time devoted by educationally trained-experienced and non-educationally trained-experienced teachers to language skills in terms of Listening. Again, this is because educationally trained-experienced teachers have an average time

devoted to listening of 5.8 minutes, which is statistically close to the 9.8 minutes devoted by non-educationally trained-experienced teachers to Listening.

For Writing, the p-value is above 0.05 ( $P=0.7493$ ), which indicates that there is no significant difference in the average time devoted by educationally trained-experienced and non-educationally trained-experienced teachers to language skills in terms of Writing. As observed, educationally trained-experienced teachers have an average time devoted to writing of 11.1 minutes, which is statistically close to the 17.1 minutes devoted by non-educationally trained-experienced teachers to writing.

As observed, both groups spent more time on Reading than on Speaking, Listening and Writing. Reading is important, as it provides the foundation for all other kinds of learning, especially during the earlier years of learning.

With reference to the participants' responses to the interview question "How can one assess the development of linguistic competence?" both educationally trained-experienced and non-educationally trained-experienced teachers responded that both oral production and writing can be assessed for the development of linguistic competence. As observed, reading either aloud or silently takes up a large amount of time, as students are in the process of thinking about how to respond to the words they see in the text.

Furthermore, the longer amount of time spent on reading could be due to repetition or rereading the articles because of mistakes in pronunciation or corrections. However, this helps students to become familiar with the words and with how they should be used, as well as exercising their fluency and improving their grammar.

Figure 4.3 Graphical Presentation of the Average Time Devoted to Language Skills Taught by Educationally Trained-Experienced and Non-educationally Trained-Experienced Participants

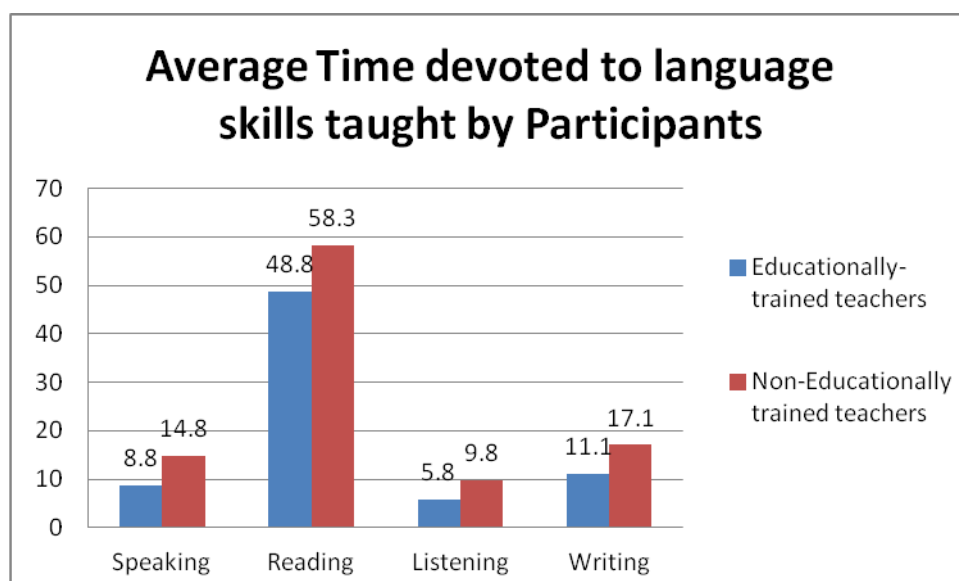


Figure 4.3 shows the graphical presentation of a comparison of the average time devoted to language skills by educationally trained-experienced and non-educationally trained-experienced teachers in terms of Speaking, Reading, Listening and Writing. As observed, non-educationally trained-experienced teachers spent more time on Speaking, Reading, Listening and Writing than did educationally trained-experienced teachers.

The following excerpt is between the teacher and one student a time. The teacher tends to enable the students to provide the correct answer.

(4.6)

*SS: Me teacher!*

*T: (The teacher selected one student to respond to question 1).*

*S: True.*

*S: False.*

*T: OK. You please (the teacher points to another student).*

*S: False teacher.*

*T: Very good, that's the correct answer.*

This conversation reveals that the teacher allows the students to answer the question by reading a certain part of a passage or book, and the teacher then confirms if the answer is correct or not. This enables the students to maximise their active learning skills.

(4.7)

*T: Listen and then answer the questions.*

*S: OK teacher.*

*T: (Selects a student to answer question 1).*

*T: The student read number 1 and just said 'Yes, that's right.*

*T: Number 2, you Ali.*

*S: Yes, em, 'yes'*

*OK, great. (The teacher points to another student to answer question 2).*

*S: About... er... No, I am not.*

*T: OK, where are Sameera and Mrs Gold?*

*T: Who is asking Sameera?*

*SS: Me teacher.*

*S: Er, airport.*

*T: Is this correct student, who can...*

This conversation shows the same thing. The teacher allows the students to answer the question by reading a certain part of a passage or book, and teacher then confirms if the answer is correct or not. This conversation confirms the result of the table above, in that reading really does take up a large amount of time, since the students need to read first in order to answer the questions, and re-reading often occurs.

The following excerpt shows how a listening activity was implemented by an educationally experienced-trained teacher.

(4.8)

*T: OK students open your (Listening Book) page: 70. Please try to guess answers from the context.*

*T: Section A: What rules does your school have? Make a list.*

*S: Many classes and... em... large yard.*

*T: Yes, ok, but,*

*T: Section B: Listen to this interview and try to write a list of six nouns from the interview.*

*T: Why the school is different?*

This conversation shows that the teacher lets the students listen to an interview and ask questions about what they hear. The teacher also instructs them to read a certain part of a book and to answer the corresponding questions.

*(4.9)*

*T: Tell the company what you want them to do*

*(The teacher writes some guided words on the board).*

- 1- Taxi to London airport.*
- 2- Plane*
- 3- Seat*
- 4- Taxi from Malaga Airport*
- 5- Swimming pool*
- 6- Swings*
- 7- Clerk*
- 8- Shower*
- 9- Dinner*
- 10- Fish and chips*

This transcript of the teacher talking also shows that the teacher lets the students listen to an interview and ask questions about what they hear. However, in this extract, the students were able to confirm what they heard when the teacher wrote down the nouns uttered in the recorded interview.

The following excerpt is taken from a lesson taught to Level 3 students, in which the teacher asked students to open their books at a particular page.

*(4.10)*

*T: Please read the conversations and then try to converse with your partner using words with same meanings as in the conversations.*

This part of the conversation shows communication in pairs.

#### 4.1.1.4 Summary of Findings

This summary includes the results for the three subcategories. The first is participant organisation, which covers teacher to class or teacher to student (TC/TS), student to class (SC), student (S) and pair. The second is content (content taught and content of tasks in lessons), which tackles the language in terms of Form, Function, Discourse and Other Topics. The third is student modality, which tackles the language in terms of Speaking, Listening, Reading and Writing, and which was further divided into a comparison of the amount of time devoted to specific language skills (see sections 4.12.1, 4.12.2 and 4.12.3).

##### 4.1.1.4.1 Participant organisation

There is a significant difference in the participant organisation of educationally trained-high-experienced teachers, teachers with educationally training who have a medium level of experience, and educationally trained teachers with a low level of experience with regard to Teacher to Class or Teacher to Student, while there is also a significant difference in the participant organisation of non-educationally trained-high-experienced teachers, non-educationally trained teachers with medium levels of experience and non-educationally trained teachers with low experience in terms of Teacher to Class or Teacher to Student approaches.

There is a significant difference in the percentage for participant organisation of educationally trained-experienced teachers. The percentage of educationally trained-experienced teachers who control all classroom activities, including the activities of talking to individual students and to the class is significantly higher than that of those who engage SC or Student to Class, Student and Pair approaches.

There is a significant difference in the percentage for participant organisation of non-educationally trained-experienced teachers because the percentage of non-educationally trained, experienced teachers applying Teacher to Class or Teacher to Student methods is significantly higher than those using Student to Class, Student and Pair methods.



There is no significant difference in the participant organisation of educationally experienced-trained and non-educationally trained-experienced teachers in terms of teacher to class or teacher to student because both of them are with high percentage

There is no significant difference in the participant organisation of educationally trained-experienced and non-educationally trained-experienced teachers in terms of Student to Class, because both groups have low percentages.

There is no significant difference in the participant organisation of educationally trained-experienced and non-educationally trained-experienced teachers in terms of S or Student, as both groups have a low percentage.

There is no significant difference in the participant organisation of educationally trained-experienced and non-educationally trained-experienced teachers in terms of Pair, as both of them have a low percentage.

#### 4.1.1.4.2 Content

There is a significant difference in the content taught in Form and Other Topics by educationally trained-high-experienced teachers, teachers who were educationally trained but who have medium levels of experience and those who were educationally trained but who have low experience, while there is a significant difference in the content of Discourse and Other Topics taught by non-educationally trained-high-experienced teachers, teachers who were not educationally trained and who have medium levels of experience and those who were not educationally trained and who have low experience.

There is a significant difference in the content taught by educationally trained-experienced teachers because the percentage of those teachers who teach language in terms of Form and those who teach Other Topics is statistically higher than it is for those who teach language in terms of Function and Discourse.

There is a significant difference in the content taught by non-educationally trained-experienced teachers because the percentage of those teachers who teach language in terms of Form and those who teach Other Topics is higher than that of those who teach language in terms of Function and Discourse

There is a significant difference between the content of lessons taught by educationally trained, experienced and non-educationally trained-experienced teachers in terms of Form because non-educationally trained-experienced teachers are more likely to prefer to include language in terms of Form in their lessons than are those with educational training and experience.

There is a significant difference between the content of lessons taught by educationally trained-experienced and non-educationally trained-experienced teachers in terms of Function.

There is no significant difference between the content of lessons taught by educationally trained-experienced and non-educationally trained-experienced teachers in terms of Discourse.

There is a significant difference between the content of lessons taught by educationally trained, experienced and non-educationally trained-experienced teachers in terms of Other Topics, because educationally trained-experienced participants are more likely to include Other Topics in their lessons than are non-educationally trained-experienced teachers.

Both educationally trained, experienced and non-educationally trained-experienced teachers focus on teaching Other Topics, followed by language in terms of Form, then language in terms of Discourse and, lastly, on language in terms of Function.

#### *Content of tasks in lessons*

There is a significant difference in the content of tasks involving Form, Discourse and Other Topics in lessons taught by educationally trained- high-experienced teachers, teachers who were educationally trained but who have medium levels of experience and those who were educationally trained but who have low experience, while a significant difference in the content of tasks involving Form, Discourse and Other Topics in lessons taught by non-educationally trained-high-experienced teachers, teachers who were non-educationally trained and who have medium levels of experience, and those who were non-educationally trained and who have low experience was observed.

There is a significant difference in the percentage of the content of tasks in lessons taught by educationally trained-experienced teachers because the percentage of the content of tasks in lessons taught by them is statistically higher for language in terms of Form and Other Topics than it is for language in terms of Function and Discourse.

There is a significant difference in the percentage of the content of tasks in lessons taught by non-educationally trained-experienced teachers because the percentage of the content of tasks in lessons taught by them is statistically higher for language in terms of Form and Other Topics than it is for language in terms of Function and Discourse.

There is a significant difference in the percentage of the content of tasks for both educationally trained-experienced teachers and non-educationally trained-experienced teachers in terms of Form, Function and Other Topics, because non-educationally trained-experienced teachers are more likely to prefer teaching language in terms of Form than are educationally trained-experienced teachers. However, educationally trained-experienced teachers are more likely to include Other Topics in their lessons than are non-educationally trained-experienced teachers.

Both educationally trained-experienced teachers and non-educationally trained-experienced teachers focus on including lessons such as Other Topics and language in terms of Form, while they are least likely to include language in terms of Discourse and language in terms of Function in their tasks.

#### 4.1.1.4.3 Student Modality

##### 4.1.1.4.3.1 Time devoted to language skills

There is a significant difference in the amount of time devoted by educationally trained-experienced teachers to language skills in terms of Speaking, because the average time spent on Speaking in the pre-test decreases significantly after the post-test.

There is a significant difference in the amount of time devoted by educationally trained-experienced teachers to language skills in terms of Reading, because the average time spent on reading in the pre-test increases significantly while Reading, and falls after the post-test.

There is no significant difference in the amount of time devoted by educationally trained-experienced teachers to language skills in terms of Listening before the activity and after the test.

There is a significant difference in the amount of time devoted by educationally trained-experienced teachers to language skills in terms of Writing because the average time spent while writing increases significantly after Writing.

There is a significant difference in the amount of time devoted by non-educationally trained-experienced teachers to language skills in terms of Speaking because the average time spent on Speaking in the pre-test decreases significantly after the post-test.

There is a significant difference in the amount of time devoted by non-educationally trained-experienced teachers to language skills in terms of Reading because the average time spent on Reading increases significantly while Reading, then falls significantly after the post-test.

There is a significant difference in the amount of time devoted by non-educationally trained-experienced teachers to language skills in terms of Listening because the average time spent on Listening increases significantly while Listening.

There is a significant difference in the amount of time devoted by non-educationally trained-experienced teachers to language skills in terms of Writing because the average time spent Writing increases significantly after Listening.

#### 4.1.2.3.2 Average Time Devoted to Language Skills

There is a significant difference in the average amount of time devoted to language skills taught by educationally trained-experienced teachers in terms of Reading, while a significant difference in the average time devoted to language skills taught by non-educationally trained-experienced teachers in terms of Reading and Writing was observed.

The average amount of time devoted to language skills taught by educationally trained-experienced teachers is significantly different for Speaking, Reading, Listening and Writing because the average time devoted to reading is statistically higher than it is for Speaking, Listening and Writing

The average amount of time devoted to language skills taught by non-educationally trained-experienced teachers is significantly different for Speaking, Reading, Listening And Writing

because the average time devoted to Reading is statistically higher than it is for Speaking, Listening and Writing.

There is no significant difference in the average time devoted by educationally trained-experienced teachers and non-educationally trained, experienced teachers to language skills in terms of Speaking.

There is no significant difference in the average time devoted by educationally trained-experienced teachers and non-educationally trained, experienced teachers to language skills in terms of Reading.

There is no significant difference in the average time devoted by educationally trained-experienced teachers and non-educationally trained, experienced teachers to language skills in terms of Listening.

There is no significant difference in the average time devoted educationally trained-experienced teachers and non-educationally trained, experienced teachers to language skills in terms of Writing.

Participants are more likely to devote more time to Reading and Writing than to Speaking and Listening.

#### 4.1.2. Interview Analysis

##### 4.1.2.0. Introduction

As previously stated, a triangulation approach involving questionnaires, interviews and classroom observations was used to assess teachers' beliefs. This section evaluates the data from the interviews conducted with 24 participants from Misurata secondary schools who were either educationally trained-high-experienced teachers, teachers who were educationally trained but who have medium levels of experience and those who were educationally trained but who have low experience, or non-educationally trained-high-experienced teachers, teachers who were not educationally trained but who have medium levels of experience and those who were not educationally trained and who have low experience. These EFL secondary teachers were selected on the basis of their willingness to be interviewed, and were the same teachers who completed the questionnaires. The teachers were asked to respond to

questions to elicit their beliefs about CLT and the constraints they encountered. This time, their responses were further classified in relation to the amount of their experience.

It has been explained that the secondary school curriculum introduced in 2000 in Libya (see Chapter Two, section, 2.14) requires the CLT approach to be implemented in Libyan EFL classrooms. As a learner-centred method, this combines a focus on linguistic forms and communicative functions through meaning-focused activities with the overall aim of achieving linguistic accuracy and communicative competence or fluency. This chapter attempts to elucidate teachers' beliefs and knowledge about CLT, I would change this with "those beliefs that are obtained by reasoning about the available information, and nothing else" (Bonanno 2002: 307) to shed light on teachers' classroom behaviour. By exploring the teachers' opinions regarding their beliefs about CLT with them, the participants would be able to reflect on their own classroom practice.

#### 4.1.2.1 Statistical methods used

Percentages were used to evaluate the responses of the respondents quantitatively. In order to measure the similarities and differences in their responses across their levels of experience and training, the Chi-square Analysis with a p-value was used to measure the differences between level of experience and level of training. However, since the goal is to present the result qualitatively, the p-values were presented instead of both the Chi-square Analysis and the p-values.

#### 4.1.2.2 Data analysis

This section will start with the main results from the interview questions (see Chapter Three and Appendix Two) presented according to topic and the teachers' answers to the questions. The data will be presented quantitatively in tables, giving the percentages of the responses. The results will also be analysed qualitatively with quotations from the participants' responses. At the end of the section, a summary of the main results will be given. The chapter will conclude with a discussion of the main findings.

The interview questions are presented by topic. There were six topics in the interviews. The first topic was language teaching in the classroom, followed by the topic of CLT implementation in the classroom. I will then analyse the topic of instruction, followed by a discussion of the topics of fluency and accuracy. I will then discuss the topic of error

correction and, finally, the topic of assessment. I will now present and analyse the topic of language teaching in the classroom.

#### 4.1.2.2.1 Language teaching in the classroom

Seven questions fall under this section. The first question was “What is the most important skill in the FL classroom?” The teachers’ answers are shown in the table below.

Table 4.18 Shows Teachers' Responses to Language Teaching in the Classroom

		LEVEL OF EXPERIENCE			LEVEL OF TRAINING		
Response categories	Percentage of Teachers	Educationally trained-high-experience teachers	Educationally trained-medium-experience teachers	Educationally trained-low-experience teachers	Non-educationally trained-high-experience teachers	Non-educationally trained-medium-experience teachers	Non-educationally trained-low-experience teachers
Listening	33%	40%	37%	40%	40%	38%	38%
Speaking	12%	13%	13%	20%	0%	15%	13%
Speaking and Listening	55%	47%	50%	40%	60%	47%	49%
p-value:		0.4874			0.2700		

Table 4.18 shows that educationally trained-high experienced and educationally trained-medium experienced teachers at 47% and 50%, respectively, responded that both Speaking and Listening are the most important skills in the FL classroom. Educationally trained teachers with low experience levels responded that Listening alone and Speaking and Listening are the most important skills for learners to acquire, while the majority of the respondents said that combined Speaking and Listening is the most important skill. With regard to non-educationally trained highly experienced teachers, 60% responded that Speaking and Listening are the most important skills for learners to acquire, while almost half of the non-educationally trained teachers with medium levels of experience and non-educationally trained teachers with low levels of experience said that Speaking and Listening

are the most important skills. The p-value shows that the responses of the teachers across all levels of experience and training are the same (P-value >0.05). Overall, 55% of the teachers believed that Speaking and Listening should be taken into consideration, since Speaking alone or Listening alone cannot improve the students' skills. For example, Teacher 7 (non-educationally trained, highly experienced) said:

“Listening and Speaking are both the most important because Listening enables an individual to receive the information, while Speaking enables the individual to express how s/he understands the information received. So, both skills must be applied together”.

Nonetheless, some teachers still said that Speaking is more important. For example, Teacher 12 (non-educationally trained and with a low level of experience) said:

“Speaking is more important. Libyans lack the ability to speak the language”.

Then teachers were then asked “Why is listening more important?” Their answers were as follows:



Table 4.19 Shows Teachers' Responses to Language Teaching in the Classroom

		LEVEL OF EXPERIENCE			LEVEL OF TRAINING		
Categories of responses	Percentage of Teachers	Educationally trained-high-experience teachers	Educationally trained-medium-experience teachers	Educationally trained-low-experience teachers	Non-educationally trained-high-experience teachers	Non-educationally trained-medium-experience teachers	Non-educationally trained-low-experience teachers
Become used to the sound	92%	89%	100%	85%	100%	92%	90%
Through speaking we interact with others	8%	11%	0%	15%	0%	8%	10%
p-value:		0.5000			0.6700		

According to the responses in Table 4.19, no major differences could be accounted for by levels of experience and levels of training. For Listening, respondents across levels of experience perceived that Listening is important because one becomes used to the sounds one hears. The table shows the results of educationally trained-high-experienced teachers (89%), teachers who were educationally trained but who have medium levels of experience (100%) and those who were educationally trained but who have little experience (85%). Across the levels of training, the above table shows that non-educationally trained-high-experienced teachers obtained 100%, teachers who were not educationally trained but who have medium levels of experience obtained 92%, and those who were not educationally trained but who have little experience obtained 90%. The p-value shows that the responses of the teachers across the levels of experience and training are essentially the same ( $P\text{-value} > 0.05$ ). This reflects the overall response of the teachers with 92%. Teacher 16 (educationally trained-high-experienced) responded that:

“Listening helps students to imitate the native speakers’ ways of speaking and expressing words thus; this enables them to gain fluency. At some point, this also enables them to improve their accuracy.

The teachers were asked “Do you think EFL learners should be forced to communicate in English from the outset of language learning?” Their answers are shown in Table 4.20 as follows: A large number of participants of both levels reported that students should be forced to interact in the target language.

Table 4.20 Shows Teachers' Responses to Language Teaching in the Classroom

		LEVEL OF EXPERIENCE			LEVEL OF TRAINING		
Response categories	Percentage of Teachers	Educationally trained-high-experience teachers	Educationally trained-medium-experience teachers	Educationally trained-low-experience teachers	Non-educationally trained-high-experience teachers	Non-educationally trained-medium-experience teachers	Non-educationally trained-low-experience teachers
Encouraged but forced	80%	70%	100%	85%	80%	79%	79%
Encouraged not forced	20%	30%	0%	15%	20%	21%	21%
p-value:		0.9900			0.9799		

Educationally trained-high-experienced teachers (70%), educationally trained teachers with medium levels of experience (100%) and educationally trained teachers with low levels of experience (85%) responded that, from the outset of language learning, the EFL learners should be forced to communicate in English. Similar observations were also observed among non-educationally trained-high-experienced respondents (80%), non-educationally trained respondents with medium levels of experience (79%) and non-educationally trained teachers with little experience (79%). The p-value indicates that there is no difference across the levels of experience and training (p-value above 0.05). Overall, 80% of the teachers believed that EFL learners should be forced to communicate in English in order to learn the language. For example, Teacher 11 (non-educationally trained-low-experience) said:

“In my opinion, forcing students to communicate and interact in English would give them a solid understanding and a better outcome in future”.

Teacher 2 (educationally trained but with low experience) said:

“I usually encourage and motivate them to communicate in English inside and outside the class”.

The teachers were asked “Is it possible for students to interact in English with each other in pairs/ groups?” Their answers are shown in Table 4.21, below. A little over half of the teachers said students will use Arabic in their classrooms.

Table 4.21 Shows Teachers' Responses to Language Teaching in the Classroom

		LEVEL OF EXPERIENCE			LEVEL OF TRAINING		
Response categories	Percentage of Teachers	Educationally trained-high-experience teachers	Educationally trained-medium-experience teachers	Educationally trained-low-experience teachers	Non-educationally trained-high-experience teachers	Non-educationally trained-medium-experience teachers	Non-educationally trained-low-experience teachers
Only in Arabic	65%	46%	50%	65%	65%	45%	45%
Arabic and a little English	30%	45%	38%	35%	35%	40%	40%
Only clever students use English	5%	9%	12%	0%	0%	15%	15%
p-value:		0.2700			0.9555		

The responses of the teachers with regard to the possibility of the students interacting in English in pairs or groups show a percentage of 46% of educationally trained-high-experienced teachers, 50% of teachers who were educationally trained but who have medium levels of experience and 65% of those who were educationally trained but who have little experience perceived that it is possible that the students interact only in Arabic. A similar perception was also observed among teachers across levels of training: 65% of non-educationally trained-high-experienced teachers, 45% of teachers who were (P: 127) non-educationally trained but who have medium levels of experience, and 45% of those who were non-educationally trained but who have little experience believed students interact only in Arabic. However, some teachers believe that it is possible to use a little English. The p-values show that the responses of the teachers across all levels of experience and training are essentially the same (P-value >0.05). Overall, the teachers responded that it is possible to interact in the Arabic language only. For example Teacher 4 (educationally trained, with a medium level of experience) said

“Students used to use English in pair/ group work, instead they usually interact in Arabic as it is much easier to understand each other than in English.

Teacher 11 (educationally trained-high-experienced) said

“When I listen to them, I can hear only the Arabic language”.

However, Teacher 20 (non-educationally trained-low-experience) said

“I think if we put clever students together, the result should be better, though they may use Arabic between at times.

It is noticed that students will use their mother tongue, Arabic, whenever they are divided into groups. This may be the reason that the teachers believe that students should be forced to interact in English?

When teachers were asked “Is it possible to speak English during the entire lesson without using your L1?”, a large number (70%) of the participants said it was impossible. Table 4.22 below shows their answers.

Table 4.22 Shows Teachers' Responses to Language Teaching in the Classroom

		LEVEL OF EXPERIENCE			LEVEL OF TRAINING		
Response categories	Percentage of Teachers	Educationally trained-high-experience	Educationally trained-medium-experience teachers	Educationally trained-low-experience teachers	Non-educationally trained-high-experience teachers	Non-educationally trained-medium-experience teachers	Non-educationally trained-low-experience teachers
Impossible	70%	48%	67%	65%	40%	58%	58%
Possible	30%	52%	33%	35%	60%	42%	42%
p-value:		0.0107			0.0132		

The table above shows that educationally trained-high-experienced teachers believed that it is possible to speak English during the entire lesson without using their L1 (52%). However, educationally trained teachers with medium levels of experience (67%) and those with little experience (65%) believe this is impossible. Similarly, non-educationally trained-high-experienced teachers (60%) thought it possible, while non-educationally trained teachers with medium levels of experience and non-educationally trained teachers with low levels of experience (58%) perceived it as being impossible. The p-values show that the responses of the teachers across the levels of experience and training are significantly different ( $p\text{-value} > 0.05$ ). The percentages for educationally trained-high-experienced and non-educationally trained-high-experienced teachers are higher than they are for educationally and non-educationally trained teachers with medium and low levels of experience. Overall the consensus was that it is impossible. For example, Teacher 15 (educationally trained, but with a low level of experience) said:

“The usage of English during the whole lesson seems impossible because both teachers and students need to express their ideas fully and the limitation of using their L2.

Teacher 12 (educationally trained,-high-experienced) said “to speak only in English in English without using Arabic. Students can’t understand”.

However, Teacher 7 (non-educationally trained, with a low level of experience) said

“Yes, I used to speak English during the class. I sometimes draw on the board and use gestures to make students understand”.

Both educationally trained-experienced and non-educationally trained-experienced teachers said that it is possible to use English all the time. However, teachers with medium and low of levels of experience and trained reported that it is not possible to use English all the time. This may be due to a lack of proficiency on the part of the teachers or of the students.

When teachers were asked “Do you speak English all the time with your learners during classroom time?”, Medium and low participants of the two levels said they do not speak the target language all the time in the classroom. Table 4.23 shows the results.

Table 4.23 Shows Teachers' Responses to Language Teaching in the Classroom

		LEVEL OF EXPERIENCE			LEVEL OF TRAINING		
Response categories	Percentage of Teachers	Educationally trained-high-experience teachers	Educationally trained-medium-experience teachers	Educationally trained-low-experience teachers	Non-educationally trained-high-experience teachers	Non-educationally trained-medium-experience teachers	Non-educationally trained-low-experience teachers
Say they do not do it	80%	82%	75%	85%	80%	79%	75%
Say they do	20%	18%	25%	15%	20%	21%	25%
p-value:		0.1848			0.3200		

The majority of the respondents across the levels of experience responded that they do not speak English with their learners all the time in the classroom. The percentages were 82 % of educationally trained-high-experienced teachers, 75% of educationally trained teachers with medium levels of experience and 85% for educationally trained teachers with low levels of experience. With regard to the level of training, non-educationally- trained-high-experienced teachers (80%), non-educationally trained teachers with medium levels of experience (79%)

and non-educationally trained teachers with low levels of experience (75%) also stated that they do not use English all the time. The p-values show that the responses of the teachers across all levels of experience and training are significantly similar ( $p\text{-value} > 0.05$ ). Overall, 80% of the teachers responded that they do not speak English with their learners all the time. For example, Teacher 13 (educationally trained with a medium level of experience) said:

“I sometimes do, but not go on all the time, as it is impossible for students to understand me”.

Teacher 1 (educationally trained, but with a low level of experience) said:

“I used to speak English with my students in and outside the class. I illustrate words, phrases and expressions, which they find difficult to understand, by gestures and pictures. I really use Arabic as a last resort”.

The teachers were asked “Do you use pair/group work activities in your lessons? If so, when?” Table 4.24 presents their answers.

Table 4.24 Shows Teachers' Responses to Language Teaching in the Classroom

		LEVEL OF EXPERIENCE			LEVEL OF TRAINING		
Response categories	Percentage of Teachers	Educationally trained-high-experience teachers	Educationally trained-medium-experience teachers	Educationally trained-low-experience teachers	Non-educationally trained-high-experience teachers	Non-educationally trained-medium-experience teachers	Non-educationally trained-low-experience teachers
Both used	68%	67%	65%	60%	80%	62%	58%
Only pairs	28%	33%	24%	40%	20%	30%	42%
No use	4%	0%	11%	0%	0%	8%	
p-value:		0.4000					

This shows that 67% of educationally trained-high-experienced teachers, 65% of educationally trained teachers with medium levels of experience and 60% of educationally

trained teachers with low levels of experience use both pair and group work in their lessons. With regard to the level of training, non-educationally trained-high-experienced teachers (80%), non-educationally trained teachers with medium levels of experience (62%) and non-educationally trained teachers with low levels of experience (58%) also responded that they use both pair and group work activities in their lessons. The p-values show that responses of the teachers across all levels of experience and training are the same (p-value > 0.05). Overall, 68% of the teachers responded that they use both pair and group activities in their lessons. The respondents agreed these strategies are useful for fostering cooperation and productivity. For example, Teacher 22 (educationally trained-low-experience) said:

“Both pair and group-work activities were used in the teacher’s lessons because it essential for cooperative relationships among the students and the instructors, and this is where productive interactions among students began to emerge”.

Teacher 1 (non-educationally trained-high-experienced) added:

“Yes, I divide students into groups to help each other to answer comprehension questions, for example”.

However, Teacher 3 (non-educationally trained-low-experience) said:

“No, I don’t use group work as it makes students play, laugh and talk more than they work”.

Teacher 24 (educationally trained-high-experienced) said:

“No, I just let the students work in pairs as group work needs time and the curriculum is long. Instead I distribute exercises and let them answer together”.

The participants’ answers are related to and consistent with their answers to the question “Do you use pair/group work activities in your lessons?” as a large number of them said that the students will use Arabic in the group/ pair work.

#### 4.1.2.2.2 CLT Implementation:

Four questions were included in this section. The first question was “Is it possible to implement CLT in Libyan secondary schools?” There was no difference in the responses



according to the level of training. A high number of participants of the two levels answered with No. Results were presented in Table 4.25.

Table 4.25 Shows Teachers' Responses to the Topic of CLT Implementation

		LEVEL OF EXPERIENCE			LEVEL OF TRAINING		
Response categories	Percent age of Teachers	Educationally trained-high-experience teachers	Educationally trained-medium-experience teachers	Educationally trained-low-experience teachers	Non-educationally trained-high-experience teachers	Non-educationally trained, medium-experience teachers	Non-educationally trained-low-experience teachers
No	85%	70%	68%	65%	80%	65%	65%
Yes	15%	30%	22%	35%	20%	35%	35%
p-value:		0.2067			0.2810		

Educationally trained-high-experienced teachers (70%), educationally trained teachers with medium levels of experience (68%) and educationally trained teachers with low levels of experience (65%) believe it is not possible to implement CLT in Libyan secondary schools. With regard to the level of training, non-educationally trained-high-experienced teachers (80%), non-educationally trained teachers with medium levels of experience (65%) and non-educationally trained teachers with low levels of experience (55%) say it is impossible. Still, the p-values show that the responses of the teachers across all levels of experience and training are essentially the same ( $p\text{-value} > 0.05$ ). Overall, 85% of the teachers responded that it is not possible to implement CLT in Libyan secondary schools. Teacher 13 (educationally trained-high-experienced) said:

“It is impossible to implement the CLT programme in Libyan secondary schools due to certain problems and challenges. The most important one is adequate training”.

Teacher 21 (non-educationally trained-high-experienced) said

“No, I do not think so. It is beyond the teachers’ and students’ ability. So, traditional methods are more appropriate than implementing CLT”.

When teachers were asked “Is it possible to implement other methods than the CLT approach?”, their answers are as shown in the table below.

Table 4.26 Shows Teachers’ Responses to the Topic of CLT Implementation

			LEVEL OF EXPERIENCE			LEVEL OF TRAINING	
Response categories	Overall	Educationally trained-high-experience teachers	Educationally trained-medium-experience teachers	Educationally trained-low experience teachers	Non-educationally trained-high-experience teachers	Non-educationally trained-medium-experience teachers	Non-educationally trained-low-experience teachers
Yes	90%	80%	85%	80%	85%	80%	65%
No	10%	20%	15%	20%	15%	20%	35%
p-value:		0.5732			0.2300		

Table 4.26 shows that educationally trained-high-experienced teachers (80%), educationally trained teachers with medium levels of experience (85%) and educationally trained teachers with low levels of experience (80%) believe it is possible to implement methods other than CLT in Libyan secondary schools. With regard to the level of training, non-educationally trained-high-experienced teachers (85%), non-educationally trained teachers with medium levels of experience (80%) and non-educationally trained teachers with low levels of experience (65%) said that it is possible to implement method other than the CLT approach. Nonetheless, the p-values show that responses across the levels of experience and training are significantly similar ( $p\text{-value} > 0.05$ ). Overall, 90% of the teachers believe that it is possible

to implement methods other than CLT. Teacher 7 (non-educationally trained-high-experienced) said:

“Yes, I think so. Students need and expect everything from the teacher and won’t depend on themselves. That’s a habit. They always ask me to bring previous exams and answer the questions for them. The majority are not interested in working with the activities. They really lack confidence”.

The next question was “Are there any challenges encountered in implementing CLT?” Most teachers (90%) said that challenges were encountered when implementing CLT. The teachers’ responses are shown in Table 4.27 below.

Table 4.27 Shows Teachers’ Responses to the Topic of CLT Implementation

		LEVEL OF EXPERIENCE			LEVEL OF TRAINING		
Response categories	Percent age of Teachers	Educationally trained-high-experience teachers	Educationally trained-medium-experience teachers	Educationally trained-low-experience teachers	Non-educationally trained-high-experience teachers	Non-educationally trained-medium-experience teachers	Non-educationally trained-low-experience teachers
Yes	90%	85%	78%	80%	75%	75%	65%
No	10%	15%	22%	20%	25%	25%	35%
p-value:		0.3319			0.1937		

The table shows that educationally trained-high-experienced teachers (85%), educationally trained teachers with medium levels of experience (78%) and educationally trained teachers with low levels of experience (80%) believe there are challenges when implementing CLT in Libyan secondary schools. With regard to the level of training, non-educationally trained-

high-experienced teachers (85%), non-educationally trained teachers with medium levels of experience (80%) and non-educationally trained teachers with low levels of experience (65%) agreed. Nonetheless, the p-values show that the responses of the teachers across all levels of experience and training are essentially the same ( $p\text{-value} > 0.05$ ). Overall, 90% of the teachers responded that challenges are encountered with regard to using and implementing the CLT approach. Teacher 19 (educationally trained-low-experienced) said:

“Yes, we really face different constraints, such as lack of adequate training, resources, class time and size etc.”

Teacher 16 (non-educationally trained-medium-experience) added

“Teachers’ and students’ proficiency is the most important challenge facing us when implementing CLT”.

The teachers were asked, “Are resources available in Libyan secondary schools?” Their answers are presented in Table 4.28.

Table 4.28 Shows Teachers’ Responses to the Topic of CLT Implementation

		LEVEL OF EXPERIENCE			LEVEL OF TRAINING		
Response categories	Percentage of Teachers	Educationally trained-high-experience teachers	Educationally trained-medium-experience teachers	Educationally trained-low-experience teachers	Non-educationally trained-high-experience teachers	Non-educationally trained-medium-experience teachers	Non-educationally trained-low-experience teachers
No	90%	85%	75%	75%	85%	65%	65%
Yes	10%	15%	25%	25%	15%	35%	35%
p-value:		0.2570			0.1400		

The table shows that educationally trained-high-experienced teachers (85%), educationally trained teachers with medium levels of experience (75%) and educationally trained teachers with low levels of experience (75%) believe that resources are not available in Libyan secondary schools. With regard to the level of training, non-educationally trained-high-experienced teachers (85%), non-educationally trained teachers with medium levels of experience (65%) and non-educationally trained teachers with low levels of experience (65%) agreed. Nonetheless, the p-values show that the responses of the teachers across all levels of experience and training are significantly similar ( $p\text{-value} > 0.05$ ). Overall, 90% of the teachers responded that there are no resources available in Libyan secondary schools. Teacher 5 (non-educationally trained-high-experienced) said:

“Unfortunately, our school is greatly lacking of resources to implement the newer approach in language teaching, such as material resources”.

Teacher 18 (educationally trained-medium-experience) said:

“No resources are available in our schools, especially schools located in rural villages. We really need resources that enable teachers to go ahead to implement the new approach”.

When teachers were asked “Do you undertake training courses?”. Their responses were as shown in the table below.

Table 4.29 Shows Teachers' Responses to the Topic of CLT Implementation

		LEVEL OF EXPERIENCE			LEVEL OF TRAINING		
Response categorical	Percentage of Teachers	Educationally trained-high-experience teachers	Educationally trained-medium-experience teachers	Educationally trained-low-experience teachers	Non-educationally trained-high-experience teachers	Non-educationally trained-medium-experience teachers	Non-educationally trained-low-experience teachers
No	85%	75%	75%	82%	87%	78%	65%
Yes	15%	25%	25%	28%	13%	22%	35%
p-value:		0.7214			0.1100		

Table 4.29 shows that educationally trained-high-experienced teachers (75%), educationally trained teachers with medium levels of experience (75%) and educationally trained teachers with low levels of experience (82%) responded that they do not undertake training courses. With regard to the level of training, non-educationally trained-high-experienced teachers (87%), non-educationally trained teachers with medium levels of experience (78%) and non-educationally trained teachers with low levels of experience (65%) also responded that they do not undertake training courses.. The p-values show that the responses of the teachers across all levels of experience and training are essentially the same ( $p\text{-value} > 0.05$ ). Overall, 85% of the teachers do not undertake training courses. For example, Teacher 2 (non-educationally trained-high-experience) said:

“I have never trained, even when I was at the university”.

Teacher 3 (non-educationally trained, low-experience) added:

“No training has been given to me. In order to implement the CLT approach, teachers should be trained in the new curriculum”.

#### 4.1.2.2.3 Instruction

Seven questions were included in this category. The first was “Can learners acquire the rules of grammar subconsciously through just listening?” A large number of participants said ‘No’. The teachers’ responses are presented in Table 4.30.

Table 4.30 Shows Teachers' Responses to Instruction

		LEVEL OF EXPERIENCE			LEVEL OF TRAINING		
Response categories	Percentage of Teachers	Educationally trained-high-experience teachers	Educationally trained-medium-experience teachers	Educationally trained-low-experience teachers	Non-educationally trained-high-experience teachers	Non-educationally trained-medium-experience teachers	Non-educationally trained-low-experience teachers
No	76%	88%	52%	83%	80%	68%	60%
Yes	20%	5%	48%	17%	20%	22%	35%
It depends	4%	7%	0%	0%	0%	10%	5%
p-value:		0.5000			0.2700		

The table shows that educationally trained-high-experienced teachers (88%), educationally trained teachers with medium levels of experience (52%) and educationally trained teachers with low levels of experience (83%) do not believe that learners can acquire the rules of grammar subconsciously through listening alone. With regard to the level of training, non-educationally trained-high-experienced teachers (80%), non-educationally trained teachers with medium levels of experience (68%) and non-educationally trained teachers with low levels of experience (60%) also responded that students cannot acquire these rules just by listening. Again, the results above show that the p-values of the teachers across all levels of experience and training are significantly similar ( $p\text{-value} > 0.05$ ). Overall, 76% of the teachers responded that learners cannot acquire the rules of grammar subconsciously through just listening. For example, Teacher 8 (educationally trained-medium-experience) said:

“It is not possible. Students always need the teacher to explain the rules, not just through listening”.

Teacher 1 (non-educationally trained-high-experience) said:

“Sometimes we do, as students used to be tested on the grammar and rules of English. So, they used to ask the teacher to explain rules and grammar carefully”.

When teachers were asked “Is it possible to teach grammar through communicative activities without explanation or drilling?”, most participants said ‘No’. Their answers were as follows.

Table 4.31 Shows Teachers’ responses to Instruction

		LEVEL OF EXPERIENCE			LEVEL OF TRAINING		
Response categories	Percent of Teachers	Educationally trained-high-experience teachers	Educationally trained-medium-experience teachers	Educationally trained-low-experience teachers	Non-educationally trained-high-experience teachers	Non-educationally trained-medium-experience teachers	Non-educationally trained-low-experience teachers
No	90%	88%	100%	100%	85%	92%	90%
Possible with some structures	10%	12%	0%	0%	15%	8%	10%
p-value:		0.9000			0.2650		

Table 4.31 shows that educationally trained-high-experienced teachers (88%), educationally trained teachers with medium levels of experience (100%) and educationally trained teachers with low levels of experience (100%) responded that it is not possible to teach grammar through communicative activities without explanation or drilling. With regard to the level of training, non-educationally trained-high-experienced teachers (85%), non-educationally trained teachers with medium levels of experience (92%) and non-educationally trained



teachers with low levels of experience (90%) agreed. Nonetheless, the results above show that the responses of the teachers across all levels of experience and training are essentially the same ( $p\text{-value} > 0.05$ ). Overall, 90% of the teachers responded that it is impossible to teach grammar through communicative activities without explanation or drilling. Teacher 5 (non-educationally trained-low-experience) said:

“No, explanation and drilling in teaching language are very important and students need the teacher to explain in Arabic, for example when using present simple with he/she/it by adding ‘s’ to the verb”.

Teacher 8 (non-educationally trained-high-experienced) added:

“It is possible, but not all the time. Some structures can’t be taught throughout speaking, but need more explanation even in the mother tongue”.

The participants’ answers to this question reveal their belief that grammar should be learnt through explanation and drilling.

When teachers were asked “Do you think using language for a real communicative purpose will result in fluency and accuracy?”, their responses varied, as can be seen in the table below.

Table 4.32 Shows Teachers' Responses to Instruction

		LEVEL OF EXPERIENCE				LEVEL OF TRAINING	
Response categories	Percentage of Teachers	Educationally trained-high-experience teachers	Educationally trained-medium-experience teachers	Educationally trained-low-experience teachers	Non-educationally trained-high-experience teachers	Non-educationally trained-medium-experience teachers	Non-educationally trained-low-experience teachers
Will result in fluency only	43%	46%	36%	40%	40%	48%	43%
Both fluency and accuracy	36%	27%	49%	60%	40%	22%	36%
Neither fluency nor accuracy	17%	22%	15%	0%	20%	22%	17%
Will result in accuracy only	4%	5%	0%	0%	0%	8%	4%
p-value:		0.0000			0.0214		

Table 4.32 shows that educationally trained-high-experienced teachers (46%) responded that using language for a real communicative purpose, will result in fluency only, while educationally trained teachers with medium levels of experience (49%) and educationally trained teachers with low levels of experience (60%) reported that using language for real communicative purposes will result in both fluency and accuracy. With regard to the level of training, non-educationally trained teachers with medium levels of experience (48%) and non-educationally trained teachers with low levels of experience (60%) reported that using

language for a real communicative purpose will result in fluency only, while 40% of non-educationally trained-high-experienced teachers responded that using language for a real communicative purpose will result in fluency only or both fluency and accuracy. The results above show that the responses of the teachers across all levels of experience and training are significantly different ( $p\text{-value} < 0.05$ ). This is because the responses non-educationally trained-high-experienced teachers are different from those of educationally trained teachers with medium-level experience of and of educationally trained teachers with low-level experience, while the responses of non-educationally trained teachers with medium levels of experience and non-educationally trained teachers with low-level experience are different from those of non-educationally trained-High-experienced teachers. Overall, 43% of the teachers believe that using language for a real communicative purpose will result in fluency only. For example, Teacher 15 (non-educationally trained-medium-experience) said:

“Ah, according to my experience, it will result in fluency more than accuracy, as accuracy needs much practice”.

Teacher 17 (educationally trained-low-experience) said:

“I think it is possible for the students to learn both fluency and accuracy, if much effort and practice are given by both the teachers and students”.

Teacher 2 (educationally trained-high-experienced) commented that:

“Even if it results in fluency and accuracy, we should not have much hope that the students will make significant gains in the two skills.

Here, the participants’ answers are consistent with their previous ones, namely that it is impossible to teach and acquire grammatical structure and rules communicatively.

The teachers were then asked “How do you use English for a real purpose in the classroom?” and their responses were as follows.

Table 4.33 Shows Teachers' Response to Instruction

	LEVEL OF EXPERIENCE			LEVEL OF TRAINING			
Response categories	Percent age of Teachers	Educationally trained-high-experience teachers	Educationally trained-medium-experience teachers	Educationally trained-low-experience teachers	Non-educationally trained-high-experience teachers	Non-educationally trained-medium-experience teachers	Non-educationally trained-low-experience teachers
For management and routines	58%	55%	63%	40%	60%	62%	58%
Ask students about their daily lives	21%	13%	37%	20%	0%	30%	21%
In classroom situations	16%	25%	0%	20%	40%	8%	16%
Through using pictures	5%	7%	0%	20%	0%	0%	5%
p-value:	0.5000				0.1000		

Table 4.33 shows that educationally trained-high-experienced teachers (55%), educationally trained teachers with medium levels of experience (63%) and educationally trained teachers with low levels of experience (40%) responded that they use English in class for management and routines. As with the level of experience, respondents across all levels of training responded similarly, with non-educationally trained-high-experience teachers (60%), non-educationally trained teachers with a medium amount of experience (62%) and non-educationally trained-low-experience teachers (58%) agreeing. Nonetheless, the results above show that the responses of the teachers across all levels of experience and training are significantly ( $p\text{-value} > 0.05$ ). Overall, 58% of the teachers responded that English can be used for the purpose of management and routines in class. Teacher 4 (educationally trained-medium-experience) said:

“I usually ask students to do things, for example bring chalk or clean the board. I also encourage them to ask in English when they need to want or request something. Practising English gives them the ability and confidence to interact with others in the target language”.

When teachers were asked “Do you explain grammar rules or do you teach them implicitly through pattern drilling?”, they responded as shown in Table 4.34.

Table 4.34 Shows Teachers' Responses to Instruction

		LEVEL OF EXPERIENCE			LEVEL OF TRAINING		
Responses categories	Percentage of Teachers	Educationally trained-high-experience teachers	Educationally trained-medium-experience teachers	Educationally trained-low-experience teachers	Non-educationally trained-high-experience teachers	Non-educationally trained-medium-experience teachers	Non-educationally trained-low-experience teachers
Say they explain and drill	77%	75%	89%	60%	80%	85%	78%
Say they only drill	23%	25%	11%	40%	20%	15%	22%
p-value:		0.3000			0.0610		

The table suggests that educationally trained-high-experienced teachers (75%), educationally trained teachers with medium levels of experience (89%) and educationally trained teachers with low levels of experience (60%) responded that they teach their students through pattern drilling. With regard to the level of training, non-educationally trained-high-experienced teachers (80%), non-educationally trained teachers with medium levels of experience (85%) and non-educationally trained teachers with low levels of experience (78%) trained also responded that they teach their students in the same way. The results also show that the responses of the teachers across all levels of experience and training are essentially the same (p-value > 0.05). Overall, 77% of the teachers responded that they teach learners through explanations and drills. Teacher 12 (educationally trained-low-experience) said:

“I think that the two ways should be used together, explaining enables the students to gain more vocabulary, while drilling enables them to practise speaking”.

Teacher 4 (non-educationally trained-medium-experience) added:

“I sometimes need to explain rules and grammar for them, for example how to form the past tense, present tense with ‘s’, passive voice, etc.”

When teachers were asked “Do you think the teacher’s role in the foreign language classroom is to provide target language input?”, more than half participants (67%) said ‘Yes’. The teachers’ responses are presented in the table below.

Table 4.35 Shows Teachers' Responses to Instruction

		LEVEL OF EXPERIENCE			LEVEL OF TRAINING		
Response categories	Percent age of Teachers	Educationally trained-high-experience teachers	Educationally trained-medium-experience teachers	Educationally trained-low-experience teachers	Non-educationally trained-high-experience teachers	Non-educationally trained-medium-experience teachers	Non-educationally trained-low-experience teachers
Yes	67%	63%	75%	40%	60%	77%	67%
No	12%	18%	0%	20%	20%	8%	10%
Not the only source	21%	19%	25%	40%	20%	15%	23%
p-value:		0.1100			0.05111		

Table 4.35 shows that educationally trained-high-experienced teachers (63%), educationally trained teachers with medium levels of experience (75%) and educationally trained teachers with low levels of experience (40%) responded that they think the teachers’ role in the foreign language classroom is to provide target language input. However, educationally trained teachers with low levels of experience (40%) also responded that the teachers’ role is

not the only source. With regard to the level of training, non-educationally trained-high-experienced teachers (60%), non-educationally trained teachers with medium levels of experience (77%) and non-educationally trained teachers with low levels of experience (67%) also reported that the teachers' role in the foreign language classroom is to provide target language input. Again, the results above show that the responses of the teachers across all levels of experience and training are significantly similar ( $p\text{-value} > 0.05$ ). Overall, 67% of the teachers responded that their role in the foreign language classroom is to provide target language input. Teacher 20 (non-educationally trained-high-experienced) said:

“Yes, it is, as repetition makes students understand, imitate and apply what they hear and memorise”.

Teacher 7 (non-educationally trained-low-experience) said:

“This does not apply to everything, as the teacher should encourage his students to learn independently, for example ask them to look for material and information from outside”.

In summary, the participants reported that the teacher's role is to provide target language input.

The last question for this topic was “What role do you assume in your classroom, a provider of knowledge or a guide of students activities?” A large number of teachers replied that they guide and provide knowledge, as shown in the table below.



Table 4.36 Shows Teachers' Responses to Instruction

		LEVEL OF EXPERIENCE			LEVEL OF TRAINING		
Response categorical	Percentage of Teachers	Educationally trained-high- experience teachers	Educationally trained-medium- experience teachers	Educationally trained-low- experience teachers	Non- educationally trained-high- experience teachers	Non- educationally trained-medium- experience v	Non- educationally trained-low- experience teachers
Say they guide and provide knowledge	92%	86%	100%	100%	100%	88%	92%
Say they only provide knowledge	8%	14%	0%	0%	0%	12%	8%
p-value:		0.2500			0.0522		

Table 4.36 shows that educationally trained-high-experience teachers (86%), educationally trained teachers with medium levels of experience (100%) and educationally trained teachers with low levels of experience (100%) responded that the role they assume is that of knowledge providers in their classrooms. With regard to the level of training, non-educationally trained-high-experienced teachers (100%), non-educationally trained teachers with medium levels of experience (88%) and non-educationally trained teachers with low

levels of experience (92%) agreed. Again, the results above also show that the responses of the teachers across all levels of experience and training were essentially the same ( $p$ -value > 0.05). Overall, 92% of the teachers said their role was as providers of knowledge in the classroom. For example, Teacher 11 (educationally trained-high-experienced) said:

“I used to be a guide and knowledge provider, but it is difficult in most cases to be a guide. Students depend on the teacher and they need everything from him”.

Teacher 2 (non-educationally trained-high-experienced) said:

“There used to be a tremendous number of students and they expect everything from the teacher, they even ask for the previous exams and their answers”.

#### 4.1.2.2.4 Fluency and accuracy

Four questions were included in this category. The first question was “If you aim for communicative competence, how you focus on accuracy?” Table 4.37 below shows the percentages.

Table 4.37 Shows Teachers' Responses to Fluency and Accuracy

		LEVEL OF EXPERIENCE				LEVEL OF TRAINING	
Response categories	Percentage of Teachers	Educationally trained-high-experience teachers	Educationally trained-medium-experience teachers	Educationally trained-low-experience teachers	Non-educationally trained-high-experience teachers	Non-educationally trained-medium-experience teachers	Non-educationally trained-low-experience teachers
Correct immediately	63%	49%	89%	40%	82%	64%	63%
Correct after activity	37%	51%	11%	60%	18%	36%	37%
p-value:		0.0000				0.0045	

When the question of accuracy was raised in conjunction with communicative competence, a high percentage of the participants (63%) said that they provided corrections immediately. Educationally trained-high experience teachers (49%) said they corrected errors immediately. Educationally trained teachers with medium levels of experience (89%) responded that they focused on accuracy immediately in pursuit of communicative competence, while educationally trained-high-experienced teachers (51%) and educationally trained teachers with low experience (60%) focused on accuracy after the activity in order to increase communicative competence. In terms of the level of training, non-educationally trained respondents with high (82%), medium (64%) and low levels of experience (63%) replied that they focused on accuracy and corrected immediately. The results above show that the responses of the teachers across the level of experience are significantly different ( $p\text{-value} < 0.05$ ). This is because the majority of responses from educationally trained-high-experienced teachers and educationally trained teachers with low-level experience differ from those of educationally trained teachers with medium-level experience. Overall, 63% of the teachers said they corrected the identified errors immediately. Teacher 2 (educationally trained-high-experienced) said:

“When students speak, they usually make errors, I write down them on the board one by one, but never interrupt them. I ask the students to correct themselves with a help of other students, if he can’t make it. At the end, I correct if necessary”.

Teacher 20 (non-educationally trained-high-experienced) said:

“I correct the student’s error immediately and write it down on the board, asking the student to read it aloud and the students repeat after them”.

When teachers were asked “Is it possible to teach fluency before accuracy or accuracy before fluency or both at the same time?” almost half of the participants replied that fluency comes before accuracy. The table below presents their responses.

Table 4.38 Shows Teachers' Responses to Fluency and Accuracy

		LEVEL OF EXPERIENCE			LEVEL OF TRAINING		
Response categories	Percent age of Teachers	Educationally trained-high-experience teachers	Educationally trained-medium-experience teachers	Educationally trained-low-experience teachers	Non-educationally trained-high-experience teachers	Non-educationally trained-medium-experience teachers	Non-educationally trained-low-experience teachers
Fluency before accuracy	57%	55%	40%	60%	80%	31%	57%
Both accuracy and fluency	33%	40%	50%	40%	20%	54%	33%
Accuracy before fluency	10%	5%	10%	0%	0%	15%	10%
p-value:		0.0034			0.0000		

Table 4.38 shows that educationally trained-high-experienced teachers (55%) and educationally trained teachers with low-level experience (60%) responded that it is possible to teach fluency before accuracy, while educationally trained teachers with medium levels of experience (50%) responded that it is possible to teach both accuracy and fluency at the same time. In terms of the level of training, non-educationally trained-high-experienced teachers (80%) and non-educationally trained teachers with low-level experience (57%) also responded that it possible to teach fluency before accuracy, while non-educationally trained teachers with medium levels of experience (54%) responded that it is possible to teach both

accuracy and fluency at the same time. The results above show that the responses of the teachers across all levels of experience and training are significantly different (p-value < 0.05). This is because the majority of responses of the teachers with high and low degrees of experience are different from the responses of those with medium levels of experience, regardless of whether the teachers had been trained in education. Overall, 57% of the teachers responded that it is possible to teach fluency before accuracy. Teacher 17 (non-educationally trained-low-experience) said:

“I think fluency comes first with correction, then accuracy. This is just to make sure the student doesn’t make errors when they speak”.

Teacher 13 (educationally trained-medium-experience) said:

“I am sure if the student speaks a lot, this will result in fluency, as he will gain experience and correct themselves automatically. So, fluency comes first and then accuracy”.

When teachers were asked “Which is more difficult to teach, accuracy or fluency? Why?”, more than half (61%) of the participants said that accuracy is more difficult to teach than fluency. The teachers’ responses are shown in the table below.

Table 4.39 Shows Teachers’ Responses to Fluency and Accuracy

		LEVEL OF EXPERIENCE			LEVEL OF TRAINING		
Response categories	Percentage of Teachers	Educationally trained-high-experience teachers	Educationally trained-medium-experience teachers	Educationally trained-low-experience teachers	Non-educationally trained-high-experience teachers	Non-educationally trained-medium-experience teachers	Non-educationally trained-low-experience teachers
Accuracy	61%	60%	63%	80%	60%	54%	61%
Fluency	35%	40%	24%	20%	40%	38%	35%
Both	4%	0%	13%	0%	0%	8%	4%
p-value:		0.5000			0.0656		

Table 4.39 shows that educationally trained-high-experienced teachers (60%), educationally trained teachers with a medium level of experience (63%) and educationally trained teachers with low-level experience (80%) responded that it is more difficult to teach accuracy than it is to teach fluency. Similarly non-educationally trained-high-experienced 60%, non-educationally trained teachers with medium-level experience 54% and non-educationally trained teachers with low-level experience 61% responded that it is more difficult to teach accuracy than fluency. The results above show that the responses of the teachers across the levels of experience and training are statistically similar ( $p\text{-value} > 0.05$ ). Overall, 61% of the teachers responded that it is more difficult to teach accuracy than fluency. For example, Teacher 23 (educationally trained-high-experienced) said:

“From my experience, teaching fluency is more difficult than accuracy, especially with our students’ level as it requires vocabulary and expressions. However, teaching accuracy is easier than fluency, as students can memorise rules and form sentences and then can use them”.

When teachers were asked “Do you teach fluency before accuracy or both at the same time?”, their responses were as presented in the table below.

Table 4.40 Shows Teachers' Responses to Fluency and Accuracy

		LEVEL OF EXPERIENCE			LEVEL OF TRAINING		
Response categories	Percentage of Teachers	Educationally trained-high-experience teachers	Educationally trained-medium-experience teachers	Educationally trained-low-experience teachers	Non-educationally trained-high-experience teachers	Non-educationally trained-medium-experience teachers	Non-educationally trained-low-experience teachers
Fluency before accuracy	55%	48%	65%	20%	62%	65%	55%
Both	30%	32%	23%	60%	38%	16%	30%
Say they teach accuracy before fluency	12%	20%	0%	20%	0%	13%	12%
Say it depends on the student's level	3%	0%	12%	0%	0%	6%	3%
p-value:		0.0000			0.1101		

Table 4.40 shows that educationally trained-high-experienced teachers (48%) and educationally trained teachers with medium-level experience (65%) teach fluency before accuracy, while educationally trained teachers with low-level experience teach fluency and accuracy at the same time. In terms of the level of training, non-educationally trained respondents with high (62%), medium (65%) and low levels of experience (55%) responded that they teach fluency before accuracy. The p-values show that respondents differ according to level of experience, as the majority of educationally trained-high-experienced and educationally trained-medium-experience teachers responded differently from those who

were educationally trained, but who had low-experience. However, the responses across the levels of training were the same. Overall, 55% of the teachers responded that they teach fluency before accuracy. Teacher 15 (educationally trained-medium-experience) said:

“I believe in teaching fluency and accuracy together however, since fluency is more difficult than accuracy, it appears that learners are able to cope better with accuracy than with fluency”.

Teacher 2 (non-educationally trained-high-experienced) said:

“My way of teaching accuracy and fluency is to let students speak and correct errors immediately. By this, the students will become in fluency and avoid committing errors”.

In summary, the participants believed that achieving accuracy is more difficult than is achieving fluency. However, they teach both. They also reported that accuracy is more important and requires more practice.

#### 4.1.2.2.5 Error correction

This topic included six questions. The first question was “What do errors represent?” Different responses were given, as shown in the table below.



Table 4.41 Shows Teacher's Responses to Error Correction

		LEVEL OF EXPERIENCE			LEVEL OF TRAINING		
Response categories	Percentage of Teachers	Educationally trained-high-experience teachers	Educationally trained-medium-experience teachers	Educationally trained-low-experience teachers	Non-educationally trained-high-experience teachers	Non-educationally trained-medium-experience teachers	Non-educationally trained-low-experience teachers
Bad model	33%	40%	14%	40%	0%	40%	33%
Not using the language	14%	22%	12%	0%	40%	15%	14%
Not acquiring the rule	7%	12%	0%	20%	0%	7%	7%
Misunderstanding the rule	18%	6%	35%	20%	0%	23%	18%
Needs time and practice	17%	13%	25%	20%	60%	0%	17%
Interference	5%	7%	0%	0%	0%	8%	5%
Overgeneralisation	6%	0%	14%	0%	0%	7%	6%
p-value:		0.0000			0.0000		

Table 4.41 shows that educationally trained-high-experienced teachers (40%) and educationally trained teachers with a low level of experience (40%) responded that errors represent a bad model, while educationally trained teachers with medium-level experience (14%) said that errors represent a bad model. Similarly, educationally trained teachers with medium-level experience (25%) thought that these errors are signs that students are in need of time and practice. With regard to the level of training, non-educationally trained-high-experienced teachers (60%) responded that these errors are signs that students are in need of time and practice, while non-educationally trained teachers with a medium amount of experience (40%) and non-educationally trained teachers with medium and low levels of experience (40%, 33%) respectively responded that errors represent a bad model. The results above show that the responses of the teachers across all levels of experience and training are statistically different ( $p\text{-value} < 0.05$ ). For the level of experience, the majority of the responses from educationally trained-high-experience teachers and educationally trained teachers with low-level experience are different from those of educationally trained teachers with medium- experience. With regard to the level of training, the majority of responses from non-educationally trained-high-experience teachers are different from those of non-educationally trained teachers with medium- and low experience. Overall, 33% of the teachers saw errors as bad models. Teacher 16 (educationally trained-medium-experience) reported:

“I consider the grammatical errors as a bad model to others; that is why I used to correct those errors immediately”.

Teacher 24 (non-educationally trained, low-experience) said:

“Students usually commit errors due to a lack of practice. If the teachers encourage their students to practice the language, they won’t commit serious errors”.

To sum up, educationally trained-high-experienced, educationally trained teachers with low experience and non-educationally trained teachers with medium-level experience referred to errors as bad models.

Teachers were then asked “Which errors do you think you need to correct, those affecting meaning or those affecting language?” The teachers’ answers varied, as shown in the table below.

Table 4.42 Shows Teachers’ Responses to Error Correction

		LEVEL OF EXPERIENCE			LEVEL OF TRAINING		
Response categories	Percentage of Teachers	Educationally trained-high-experience teachers	Educationally trained-medium-experience teachers	Educationally trained-low-experience teachers	Non-educationally trained-high-experience teachers	Non-educationally trained-medium-experience teachers	Non-educationally trained-low-experience teachers
Both meaning and language	40%	50%	25%	40%	20%	47%	40%
Meaning	38%	40%	37%	40%	60%	30%	38%
Language	22%	10%	38%	20%	20%	23%	22%
p-value:		0.0000			0.0002		

Table 4.42 shows that educationally trained-high-experienced teachers (50%) and educationally trained teachers with low-level experience (40%) responded that the errors that need to be corrected are those that affect meaning and those that affect language, while 38% of those who are educationally trained and have a medium amount of experience believed that the area most in need of correction is that of language. On the other hand, 40% of those who are non-educationally trained and who have low experience believed that the area that is most in need of correction is that of meaning. For the level of training, 60% of non-educationally trained-high-experienced teachers responded that correction of meaning should take place, while those without educational training and with medium-level experience (47%), as well as those without educational training and with limited experience (40%) responded that both meaning and language should be corrected. The results above show that the responses of the teachers across the levels of experience and training are statistically

different ( $p\text{-value} < 0.05$ ). With regard to the level of experience, the majority of responses from educationally trained-high-experienced teachers and educationally trained teachers with a low level of experience differ from those of educationally trained teachers with a medium amount of experience. On the other hand, in terms of the level of training, the majority of responses from non-educationally trained-high-experienced teachers differ from those of non-educationally trained teachers with medium- and low-level experience. Overall, 40% of the teachers responded that the errors in need of corrections are in the areas of both meaning and language. For example, Teacher 4 (non-educationally trained-high-experienced) reported:

“Meaning and language are both important. They complete each other. In order to get the meaning, the student should aim at a correct sentence”.

Teacher 5 (educationally trained-low-experience) said:

“Meaning is more important than language, so it should be corrected to be understood even if there are errors in the sentence”.

When teachers were asked “Is it possible to ignore students’ errors during a communicative activity?”, the majority said yes, as shown in the table below.

Table 4.43 Shows Teachers' Responses to Error Correction

		LEVEL OF EXPERIENCE			LEVEL OF TRAINING		
Response categories	Percent age of Teachers	Educationally trained-high-experience teachers	Educationally trained-medium-experience teachers	Educationally trained-low-experience teachers	Non-educationally trained-high-experience teachers	Non-educationally trained-medium-experience teachers	Non-educationally trained-low-experience teachers
Yes, it is possible	76%	93%	50%	100%	80%	67%	76%
No, it is not possible	24%	7%	50%	0%	20%	33%	24%
p-value:		0.9000			0.0790		

Table 4.43 shows that educationally trained-high-experienced teachers (93%), educationally trained teachers with medium levels of experience (50%) and educationally trained teachers with low levels of experience (100%) responded that it is possible to ignore students' errors during a communicative activity. With regard to the level of training, non-educationally trained-high-experienced teachers (80%), non-educationally trained teachers with medium levels of experience (67%) and non-educationally trained teachers with low levels of experience (76%) agreed. The results above show that the responses of the teachers across all levels of experience and training are statistically similar (p-values above 0.05). Overall, 76% of the teachers responded that the errors that occur during a communicative activity may be ignored. Teacher 19 (non-educationally trained-low-experience) reported:

“For me, simple errors can be ignored as the meaning is not affected by them. Students usually commit errors and then they can realise them and correct themselves”.

Teacher 8 (educationally trained-high-experienced) said:

“I can’t stop and correct a student while he is speaking. This will affect his confidence. The best way is to let students practice the language so that they can build confidence and correct themselves”.

The teachers were then asked “Which errors would you ignore during a communicative activity?” Their answers are presented in Table 4.44.

Table 4.44 Shows Teachers' Responses to Error Correction

		LEVEL OF EXPERIENCE			LEVEL OF TRAINING		
Response categories	Percentage of Teachers	Educationally trained-high-experience teachers	Educationally trained-medium-experience teachers	Educationally trained-low-experience teachers	Non-educationally trained-high-experience teachers	Non-educationally trained-medium-experience teachers	Non-educationally trained-low-experience teachers
Grammatical errors	45%	60%	25%	80%	40%	36%	45%
Simple errors	23%	20%	25%	20%	21%	24%	23%
All errors	5%	6%	0%	0%	19%	0%	5%
Depends on the aim of the lesson	5%	7%	0%	0%	0%	9%	5%
Would not ignore errors	22%	7%	50%	0%	20%	31%	22%
p-value:		0.0000			0.0000		

The table above shows that educationally trained,-high-experienced teachers (60%) and educationally trained teachers with limited experience (80%) responded that they ignore grammatical errors during a communicative activity, while 25% of educationally trained teachers with medium-level experience do not ignore errors of any kind. For the level of training, non-educationally trained-high-experienced teachers (40%), and non-educationally trained teachers with medium- (36%) and low-level experience (45%) responded that they ignored grammatical errors as well. Overall, 45% of the teachers responded that they often ignored grammatical errors during a communicative activity. Teacher 7 (educationally trained-high-experienced) reported:

“I used to correct serious errors and just pass simple ones like past tense form, for example ‘look’ instead of ‘looked’ with words like ‘yesterday’”.

Teacher 3 (non-educationally trained-medium-experience) said:

“For me, I believe in letting the students continue on and then let them know their errors by repeating what they said correctly”.

In brief, almost half (45%) of the participants reported they would ignore grammatical errors.

When teachers were asked “How often do you correct your students’ errors?”, teachers said they always corrected errors, as shown in the table below.



Table 4.45 Shows Teachers' Responses to Error Correction

		LEVEL OF EXPERIENCE			LEVEL OF TRAINING		
Response categorical	Percentage of Teachers	Educationally trained- high- experience teachers	Educationally trained- medium- experience teachers	Educationally trained- low- experience teachers	Non- educationally trained- high- experience teachers	Non- educationally trained- medium- experience teachers	Non- educationally trained- low- experience teachers
Say they always correct	67%	60%	75%	40%	60%	78%	67%
Say they usually correct	25%	25%	25%	40%	40%	16%	25%
Say they sometimes correct	8%	15%	0%	20%	0%	6%	8%
p-value:		0.0000			0.0004		

The responses to question five are shown in Table 4.46. Educationally trained, highly experienced teachers (60%), educationally trained teachers with a medium amount of experience (75%) and non-educationally trained teachers with low-level experience (40%) responded that they always correct students' errors, while 40% of educationally trained teachers with low experience usually correct them. In terms of the level of training, non-educationally trained respondents with high (60%), medium (78%) and low levels of

experience (67%) responded that they always correct students' errors. Overall, 67% of the teachers responded that they always correct students' errors. For example, Teacher 2 (non-educationally trained-low-experience) said:

“Yes, I usually do, especially with those who commit serious errors that affect the meaning”.

Teacher 9 (educationally trained-high-experienced) said:

“Of course, I do, if I don't the errors will stick in their minds and they will be difficult to change”.

When the teachers were asked “Do you immediately correct them, or do you leave them until after the activity is finished?”, a large number of teachers (79%) reported that they correct errors immediately. Table 4.46 shows the percentages.

Table 4.46 Shows Teachers' Responses to Error Correction

		LEVEL OF EXPERIENCE			LEVEL OF TRAINING		
Response categories	Percentage of Teachers	Educationally trained-high-experience teachers	Educationally trained-medium-experience teachers	Educationally trained-low-experience teachers	Non-educationally trained-high-experience teachers	Non-educationally trained-medium-experience teachers	Non-educationally trained-low-experience teachers
Say they correct immediately	79%	83%	75%	100%	80%	72%	79%
Say they correct after activity	21%	17%	25%	0%	20%	18%	21%
p-value:		0.6000			0.0939		

Table 4.46 shows that educationally trained-high-experienced teachers (83%), educationally trained teachers with medium levels of experience (75%) and educationally trained teachers with low levels of experience (100%) responded that they correct them immediately. With regard to the level of training, non-educationally trained-high-experienced teachers (80%), non-educationally trained teachers with medium levels of experience (72%) and non-educationally trained teachers with low levels of experience (79%) agreed. Again, the results above show that the responses of the teachers across all levels of experience and training are

essentially the same (p-values above 0.05). Overall, 79% of the teachers responded that they correct them immediately. Teacher 6 (educationally trained-medium-experience) reported:

“I respond to the errors immediately in order for the students not to repeat them. This is to let students practice the language correctly”.

Teacher 11 (non-educationally trained-low-experience) said:

“I correct the errors as soon as they happen by asking the students to repeat the correct answer/ sentence after me”.

Overall, the participants reported that they dealt with and corrected errors immediately, especially in practical assignments and exams.

#### 4.1.2.3 Beliefs regarding constraints that affect CLT implementation

Teachers were first asked “Are resources available in your school?” Almost all of the teachers said No, as shown in Table 4.47 below.

Table 4.47 Shows Teachers’ Responses to the Lack of Teaching Resources and Facilities

		LEVEL OF EXPERIENCE			LEVEL OF TRAINING		
Response categories	Percentage of Teachers	Educationally trained-high-experience teachers	Educationally trained-medium-experience teachers	Educationally trained-low-experience teachers	Non-educationally trained-high-experience teachers	Non-educationally trained-medium-experience teachers	Non-educationally trained-low-experience teachers
No	90%	88%	100%	87%	100%	90%	90%
Yes	10%	12%	0%	13%	0%	10%	10%
p-value:		0.1010			0.0740		

The constraints that restrict the implementation of CLT include a lack of teaching facilities and resources, large class sizes and shortage of time, low proficiency among both students and teachers, and a lack of teacher training.

#### 4.1.2.3.1 Lack of teaching resources and facilities

The first question exploring this theme enquired whether resources were available at the school. The results are given in Table 4.48. Educationally trained teachers with high (88%), medium (100%) and low levels of experience (87%) responded that resources were not available at their school. In terms of the level of training, almost exactly the same results were observed, as non-educationally trained teachers with high (100%), medium (90%) and low levels of experience (90%) also reported that facilities and resources were not available at their schools. The p-values presented above show that the responses of the teachers across all levels of experience and training are essentially the same (p-values are above 0.05). Overall, 90% of the teachers responded that facilities and resources were not available at their schools. Teacher 8 (educationally trained-high-experienced) reported:

“Resources are not available in our school. To implement the CLT activities, we need resources and facilities. You know EFL teachers need resources and facilities such as films, CDs, internet, tape recorders, etc.”

Teacher 3 (non-educationally trained-low-experience) said:

“I would say our schools need more and more resources and facilities, such as labs, internet, etc. The recent situation is very bad, very poor”.

#### 4.1.2.3.1.1 Class size and time constraints:

When teachers were asked “What is the average number of students in your class?”, a large number of the teachers said they had more than forty students in their classes.

Table 4.48 Shows Teachers' Responses to Class Size and Time

		LEVEL OF EXPERIENCE			LEVEL OF TRAINING		
Response categories	Percentage of Teachers	Educationally trained-high-experience teachers	Educationally trained-medium-experience teachers	Educationally trained-low-experience teachers	Non-educationally trained-high-experience teachers	Non-educationally trained-medium-experience teachers	non-educationally trained-low-experience teachers
More than 40 students	88%	87%	100%	80%	100%	90%	88%
Less than 40 students	12%	13%	0%	20%	0%	10%	12%
p-value:		0.2352			0.3523		

Table 4.48 shows that educationally trained teachers with high (100%), medium (80%) and low levels of experience (100%) all responded that their classes consisted of more than forty students. In terms of the level of training, almost identical results were observed, as non-educationally trained teachers with high (100%), medium (90%) and low levels of experience (85%) also responded that they had more than 40 students in a class. The p-values presented above show that the responses of the teachers across all levels of experience and training are statistically similar (p-values are above 0.05). Overall, 88% of the teachers responded that the average number of students in a class was more than 40. Teacher 5 (educationally trained-high-experienced) reported:

“Our classes usually have more than 40 students. This is one of the reasons why the teachers often ignore or aren’t able to track errors. You know it is very difficult to control a class that contains forty or more students, imagine how to deal with their tasks, assignments, exams, and so on”.

#### 4.1.2.3.1.2 Students' proficiency

When teachers were asked “Does the students' proficiency affect the implementation of CLT?”, a large number of teachers said ‘Yes’, as shown in the table below.

Table 4.49 Shows Teachers' Responses to Students' Proficiency

		LEVEL OF EXPERIENCE			LEVEL OF TRAINING		
Response categories	Percentage of Teachers	Educationally trained-high-experience teachers	Educationally trained-medium-experience teachers	Educationally trained-low-experience teachers	Non-educationally trained-high-experience teachers	Non-educationally trained-medium-experience teachers	non-educationally trained-low-experience teachers
Yes	85%	87%	100%	80%	100%	90%	85%
No	15%	13%	0%	20%	0%	10%	15%
p-value:		0.7258			0.5051		

Table 4.49 shows that educationally trained teachers with high (87%), medium (100%) and low levels of experience (80%) responded that students' proficiency affects the implementation of the CLT approach. Regarding the level of training, non-educationally trained teachers with high (100%), medium (90%) and low levels of experience (85%) agreed. The p-values presented above show that the responses of the teachers across all levels of experience and training are essentially the same (p-values are above 0.05). Overall, 85% of the teachers responded that the implementation of the CLT approach affects student's proficiency. Teacher 11 (educationally trained-low-experience) said:

“I would like to say if the students are proficient in English, the CLT approach may be easier to implement since students have sufficient understanding of the rules of grammar”.

#### 4.1.2.3.1.3 Teachers' proficiency

Teachers were asked “Do you use L2 fluently and appropriately in the classroom?” Their responses are presented in the table below.

Table 4.50 Shows Teachers' Responses to Teachers' Proficiency

		LEVEL OF EXPERIENCE			LEVEL OF TRAINING		
Response categories	Percentage of Teachers	Educationally trained-high-experience teachers	Educationally trained-medium-experience teachers	Educationally trained-low-experience teachers	Non-educationally trained-high-experience teachers	Non-educationally trained-medium-experience teachers	non-educationally trained-low-experience teachers
Yes	80.83%	87%	100%	80%	100%	86%	32%
No	12.5%	8%	0%	10%	0%	7%	50%
Yes, but with Arabic	6.33%	5%	0%	10%	0%	5%	18%
p-value:		0.7086			0.0688		

Table 4.50 shows educationally trained teachers with high (87%), medium (100%) and low levels of experience (80%) responded that they use the L2 fluently and appropriately in their classrooms. For the level of training, non-educationally trained teachers with high (100%) and medium levels of experience (86%) responded that they use the L2 fluently and appropriately in their classrooms, but half of the non-educationally trained teachers with low levels of experience (50%) responded that they were not able to use the L2 fluently and appropriately in their classrooms. Again, the p-values presented above show that responses of the teachers across all levels of experience and training are statistically the same (p-values are above 0.05). Overall, the majority of the teachers (80.83%) responded that they use the L2 fluently and appropriately in their classrooms, but a small percentage of participants said they did not. Teacher 2 (non-educationally trained-high-experienced) said:



“I used to be a teacher who guides the students in fluent and accurate English. Because of this, teachers have to be a good role model for their students and should use English as approximately as it should be in the classroom”.

#### 4.1.2.3.1.4 Lack of training

When teachers were asked “Do you receive adequate training to implement CLT?”, the majority answered they did not receive any training on the implementation of the CLT approach, as shown in the table below.

Table 4.51 Shows Teachers’ Responses to Lack of Training

		LEVEL OF EXPERIENCE			LEVEL OF TRAINING		
Response categories	Percentage of Teachers	Educationally trained-high-experience teachers	Educationally trained-medium-experience teachers	Educationally trained-low-experience teachers	Non-educationally trained-high-experience teachers	Non-educationally trained-medium-experience teachers	non-educationally trained-low-experience teachers
Yes	28%	14%	10%	20%	20%	25%	28%
No	72%	86%	90%	80%	80%	75%	72%
p-value:		0.0829			0.0723		

Table 4.51 suggests that educationally trained teachers with high (86%), medium (90%) and low levels of experience (80%) responded that they had not received any training on the implementation of the CLT approach. With the regard to the level of experience, non-educationally trained teachers with high (80%), medium (75%) and low levels of experience (72%) also responded that they had not received any training on the implementation of the CLT approach. However, only 14% of the educationally trained highly experienced teachers, 10% of educationally trained teachers with medium-level experience, 20% of educationally

trained teachers with low-level experience, 20% of non-educationally trained, highly experienced teachers, 25% of non-educationally trained teachers with medium-level experience and 28% of non-educationally trained teachers with low-level experience responded that they had received training. Thus, the p-values presented above show that the responses of the teachers across all levels of experience and training are statistically similar (p-values are above 0.05). Overall, 72% of the teachers responded that they had not received any training to implement CLT. Teacher 6 (educationally trained-high-experienced) said:

I think most of the teachers haven't taken training, in case it happened, it is just in theory. I would say that teachers need adequate training to implement CLT probably. Difficulties along with it may be addressed thus, enables the teachers to assess on implementing it or looking for an alternative approach.

#### 4.1.2.4 Summary of interview findings

##### 4.1.2.4.1 Language teaching in the classroom

The teachers across all levels of experience and training believe that speaking and listening enable the students to improve their skills. However, they responded that listening is important not just because someone becomes used to the sounds they heard, but also because it helps them to become fluent; thus, EFL learners should be forced to communicate in English from the outset of language learning. According to the teachers, using pair and group activities in their lessons increases the students to express their cooperation and productivity; however, interactions within pairs/groups are possible only if they speak Arabic. Using English during the entire lesson seems to be impossible, as they need to use their mother tongue. In accordance with this, they do not speak English all the time with the learners, not even during classroom time

##### 4.1.2.4.2 CLT Implementation

Due to the challenges encountered in implementing CLT, the teachers responded that it is impossible to implement in Libyan secondary schools. However, they believe that it is possible to implement methods other than the CLT approach, such as GTM or ALM, as this may enhance the skills of the students in speaking English. The teachers responded that there

are no resources available in Libyan secondary schools. Teachers also do not undertake training courses.

#### 4.1.2.4.3 Instruction

Teachers see themselves as providing knowledge in the classroom, which incorporates their abilities to input the target language. Thus, they responded that learners cannot acquire the rules of grammar subconsciously through just listening. However, they know that explanations and drills are important in order for them to teach grammar through communicative activities. Teacher's responses to language for real communicative purposes vary across the level of experience. Educationally trained-high-experienced teachers think that using language for real communicative purposes will result in fluency only, while educationally trained teachers with medium-experience and educationally trained teachers with low-experience think that using language for real communicative purposes will result in both fluency and accuracy. Furthermore, the trained teachers responses varied across levels with regard to using language for real communicative purposes, whereas non-educationally trained teachers with medium-experience and non-educationally trained teachers with low-experience think that using language for real communicative purposes will result in fluency only, but non-educationally trained-high-experienced think that using language for real communicative purposes will result either in fluency only, or in both fluency and accuracy. The teachers responded that English can be used for the purpose of management and routines in class. They also teach the students implicitly through explanations and drills.

#### 4.1.2.4.4 Fluency and accuracy

The teachers' responses referred in some cases to the importance of fluency; they corrected the identified errors immediately. However, accuracy is more difficult to teach than is fluency. The possibility of teaching fluency before accuracy varied according to the respondents' levels of experience and training. Educationally trained-high-experienced teachers and non-educationally trained teachers with low-level experience and level of training responded that it possible to teach fluency before accuracy, while educationally trained teachers with medium-level experience and non-educationally trained teachers with low-level experience responded that both accuracy and fluency are possible. Thus, they teach fluency before accuracy in practice.

#### 4.1.2.4.5 Error correction

The teachers responded that they always and immediately corrected the students' errors and that errors were seen as a bad model; consequently, these errors must be corrected in the areas of meaning and of language, which makes explanations and drills important. However, some of the errors that occur during communicative activities may be deliberately ignored.

#### 4.1.2.5 Beliefs regarding constraints that affect CLT implementation

The teachers responded that the average number of students in a class of secondary school students was more than 40. Most teachers said that resources are not available at their schools. Teachers responded that the implementation of CLT affects students' proficiency. However, it is sometimes hindered because teachers do not use the L2 fluently and appropriately. Across the level of experience, educationally trained-high-experienced teachers and non-educationally trained teachers with medium-level experience responded that they received training to implement CLT. However, non-educationally trained teachers with low-experience reported that no adequate training had been undertaken.

### 4.1.3 Questionnaire results

#### 4.1.3.0 Introduction

This section covers information regarding the development of the questionnaire and the results obtained. It is divided into the following subsections: demographic details of participants' education, group division, analysis and interpretation of results, and a summary of the questionnaire results.

The questionnaire questions were divided into three groups. Group one was importance of grammar instruction, group two the role of the teacher, and group three group/ pair work.

Since there were 24 subjects in this study (which is below the threshold of 30 samples) non-parametric statistics will be used. Non-parametric statistics are desirable for samples below 30 because they minimise the presence of outliers in the data, thus making the categories comparable even though the sample distributions are unequal. This method is also used if the variables are in ordinal form, as in the Likert Scale (see Walpole et al., 2002; Karavas, 1996).

To determine the demographic details of the participants, which include their levels of experience and training, frequency and percentages were used. To determine the average

responses of the respondents with regard to principles and practices of communicative language teaching, median and range were used. These are the non-parametric counterparts of mean and standard deviations in parametric statistics. In order to interpret the median values, the standard mean of interpretation was utilised (see Walpole et al., 2002):

To determine if there are significant differences/similarities regarding the principles and practices of communicative language teaching of teachers with varying levels of experience and training, the Kruskal-Wallis Test was utilised. This is the parametric counterpart of the analysis of variance, which is used to compare two or more categories or variables (Walpole et al., 2002). Participants' responses regarding principles and practices of communicative language teaching are considered in terms of the importance of grammar instruction, the role of the teacher and group/pair work.

In the analysis section, a significant difference will be determined by the p-value. A p-value below 0.05 indicates that there is a significant difference, while a p-value above 0.05 indicates that there is no significant difference.

#### 4.1.3.1 Group division

This subsection divided the responses from the 24 participants for each statement into three groups. Table 4.52 shows this.

Table 4.52 Shows Group division

Group Number	Statement Nos.
One: Importance of grammar instructions	1, 3, 6, 12, 17, 18, 23
Two: The role of the teacher	4, 5, 7, 8,10, 11, 16, 19, 20, 24
Three: Group and pair work activities	2, 9, 13, 14, 15, 21, 22

### Group 1

- 1- Grammatical correctness is the most important criterion whereby language performance should be judged.
3. Grammar should be taught only as a means to an end, and not as an end in itself.
6. For students to become effective communicators in the foreign language, the teachers' feedback must be focused on the appropriateness and not on the linguistic form of the students' responses.
12. Knowledge of the rules of a language does not guarantee the ability to use the language.
14. Since errors are a normal part of learning, too much time should not be spent on correction.
17. By mastering the rules of grammar, students become fully capable of communicating with native speakers.
18. For most students, language is acquired most effectively when it is used as a vehicle for doing something else, rather than when being studied as a primary goal.
23. Direct instructions in the rules and terminology of grammar are essential if students are to learn to communicate effectively.

### Group 2

- 4- When a learner comes to the language classroom with little or no knowledge of the language, he/she cannot be expected to suggest what the content of the lesson should be or what activities are useful for him/her.
5. Training learners to take responsibility for their own learning is not feasible when learners are not used to such an approach.
7. The teacher as "authority" and "instructor" no longer describes all the teacher's roles in the language classroom.
8. The learner-centred approach to language teaching encourages responsibility and self-discipline to allow full developmental potential.
10. Unless all their grammatical errors are corrected, students will be at risk of imperfect learning.

11. In a large class it is not possible to organize teaching so as to meet all individual needs.
15. The communicative approach to language teaching produces fluent but inaccurate learners.
16. The teacher as transmitter of knowledge is only one of the many different roles he/she performs during the course of a lesson.
19. The role of the teacher in the language classroom is to impart knowledge through activities such as explanations, writing and examples.
20. Tasks and activities should be negotiated and adapted to suit the students' needs, rather than being determined by the teacher in advance.
24. To meet all students' needs and interests, the teacher must supplement the textbook with other materials and tasks.

### Group 3

2. Group work activities are essential to allow cooperative relationships and productive interactions among students to emerge.
9. Group work allows students to explore problems for themselves and to thus have some measure of control over their own learning.
13. Group work activities are not an efficient use of planning and teaching time.
21. Small group work may occasionally be useful to vary the routine, but should be secondary to sound, formal instruction by a competent teacher.
22. Group work activities have limited value, since it is very difficult for the teacher to monitor the students' performance and to prevent them from using their mother tongue.
14. Since errors are a normal part of learning, too much time should not be spent on correction.
15. The communicative approach to language teaching produces fluent but inaccurate learners.

#### 4.1.3.2 Analysis and interpretation of results

The participants' responses are divided into three groups. Group one is the importance of grammar instruction, group two is the role of the teacher and group three is group/ pair work. The following are the participants' responses to each statement.

##### 4.1.3.2.1 Important of grammar instruction

Table 4.53 shows the comparison of the respondents' perceptions of the principles and practices of the communicative language teaching approach by teachers in terms of the importance of grammar instruction according to the level of experience and training. With regard to the level of experience, the p-value is 0.841, which means that the Null hypothesis is accepted and the conclusion, therefore, is that there is no significant difference regarding the principles and practices of communicative language teaching by teachers in terms of the importance of grammar instructions according to the level of experience. As observed, educationally trained teachers with low (3.5%) and high levels of experience (3.5%) agreed on the importance of grammar instruction. However, educationally trained teachers with a medium level of experience (3.25%) were undecided. However, the minimal median difference from educationally trained-high-experienced teachers and educationally trained teachers with low experience makes this insignificant (see Figure 4.4).

With regard to the level of non-educationally trained teachers, the p-value is 0.028, which means that null hypothesis is rejected, and it is therefore concluded that there is a significant difference in the principles and practices of communicative language teaching by teachers in terms of the importance of grammar instruction correlated with the level of training of participant teachers. The reason for this significant result is that (P: 180) 3% of non-educationally trained, highly experienced teachers, 3.5% of non-educationally trained, medium-experienced teachers and 4% of non-educationally trained teachers with low levels of experience were undecided (see Figure 4.5).



Table 4.53 Shows Comparison of Participants' Perceptions of the Principles and Practices of Communicative Language Teaching in Terms of the Importance of Grammar Instruction according to levels of experience and training

		Median	The Kruskal- Wallis Statistic	p-value	Verbal Interpretation
Level of Experience	Educationally trained- high-experience teachers	4.00	.347	.841	Not Significant
	Educationally trained- medium-experience teachers	3.25			
	educationally trained- low-experience teachers	3.50			
Level of Training	Non-educationally trained-high-experience teachers	3.00	2.580	.028	Significant
	Non-educationally trained-medium- experience teachers	3.50			
	Non-educationally trained-low-experience teachers	4.00			

Figure 4.4 Graphical presentation of the comparison of respondent's perceptions of the principles and practices of the communicative language teaching of teachers in terms of the importance of grammar instruction according to the level of Experience.

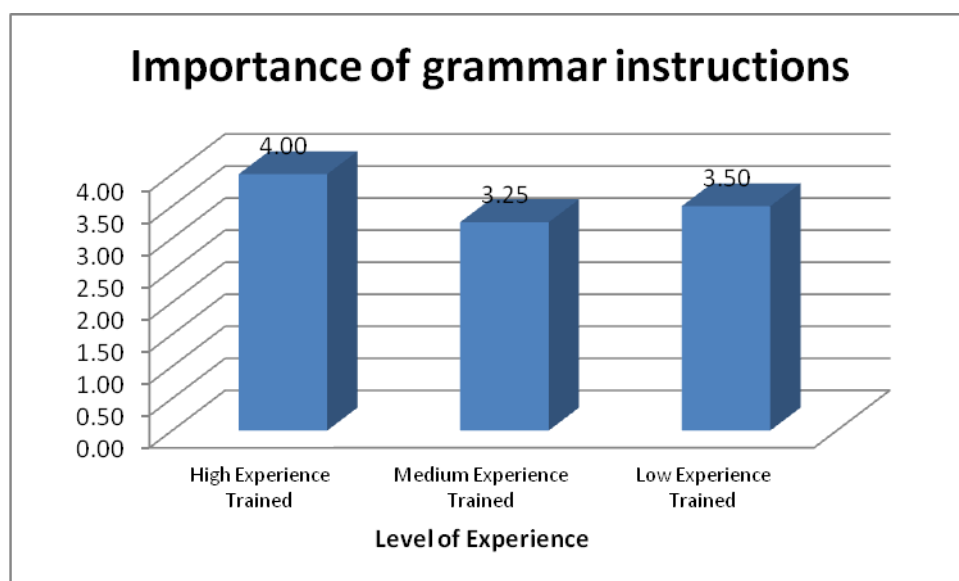
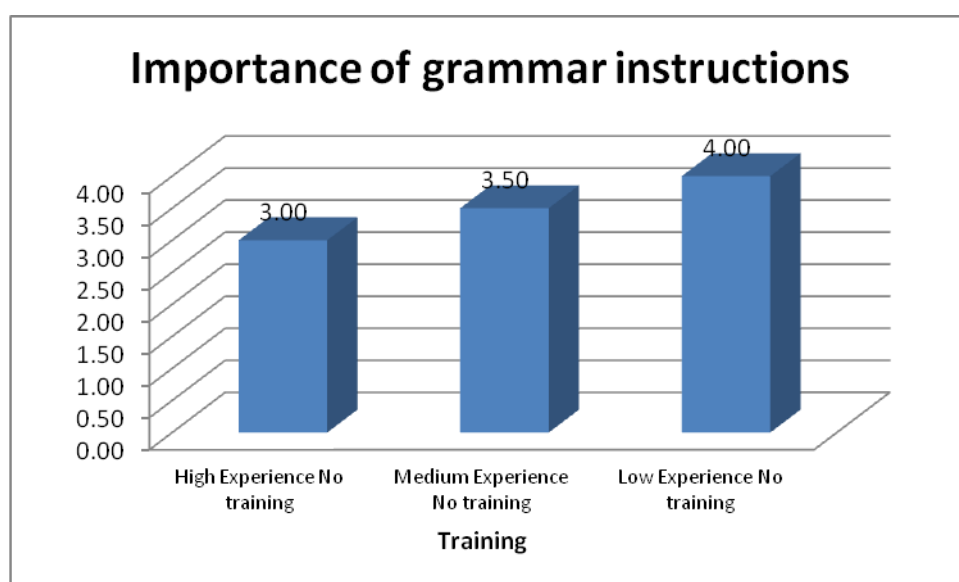


Figure 4.5 Graphical presentation of the comparison of the respondents' perceptions of the principles and practices of the communicative language teaching of teachers in terms of the importance of grammar instruction according to the level of Training.



#### 4.1.3.2.2 The role of the teacher

Table 4.54 shows the comparison of the respondents' perceptions of the principles and practices of the communicative language teaching of teachers in terms of their role as teachers according to their levels of experience and training. With regard to the level of experience, the p-value is 0.015, which means that there is a significant difference in their perceptions according to the level of experience of participating teachers. Educationally trained respondents with low experience (4.5%) strongly agreed on the role of the teacher, which is a significant difference from those who were educationally trained with medium experience (3.5%) and those who were educationally trained-high-experienced (4.0%), who agreed on the role of the teacher.

Regarding the non-educationally trained teachers, the p-value is 0.902, which means that there is no significant difference related to the level of training. An insignificant difference occurs because non-educationally trained-high-experienced teachers, non-educationally trained teachers with medium experience and non-educationally trained teachers with low experience agreed on the role of the teacher (see Figures 4.6 and 4.7).

Table 4.54 Shows Comparison of Participants' Perceptions of the Principles and Practices of the Communicative Language Teaching of Teachers in Terms of the Role of Teachers according to Levels of Experience and Training

		Median	The Kruskal-Wallis Statistic	p-value	Verbal Interpretation
Level of Experience	Educationally trained-high-experience teachers	4.00	3.792	.015	Significant
	Educationally trained-medium-experience teachers	3.50			
	Educationally trained-low-experience teachers	4.50			
Training	Non-educationally trained-high-experience teachers	3.50	0.207	.902	Not Significant
	Non-educationally trained-medium-experience	4.00			
	Non-educationally trained-low-experience teachers	4.00			

Figure 4.6 Graphical presentation of the comparison of the respondents' perception of the principles and practices of communicative language teaching of teachers in terms of their role as teachers according to the level of Experience.

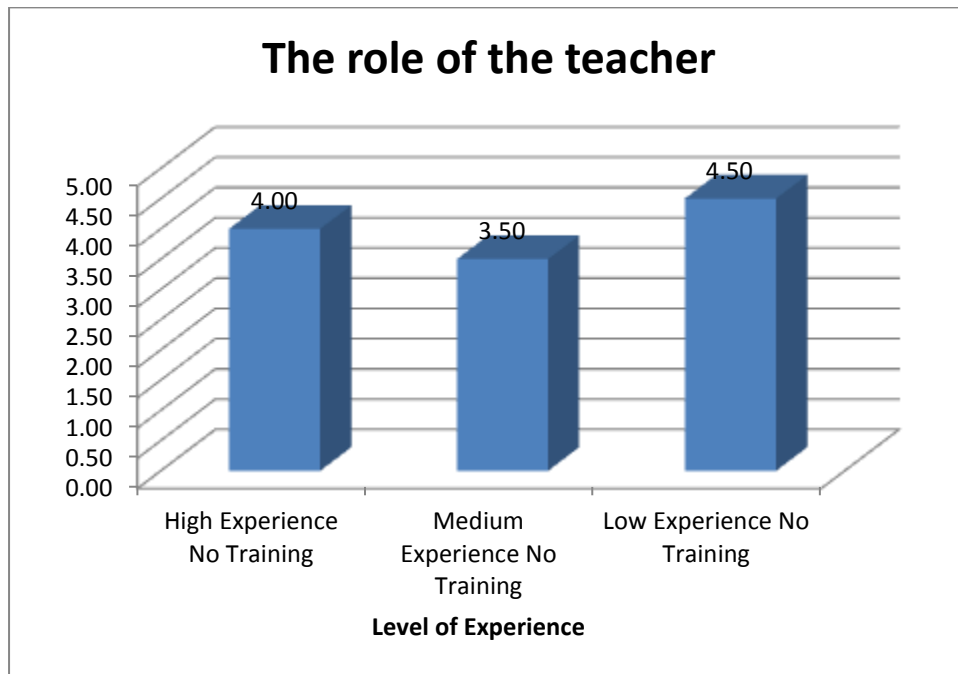
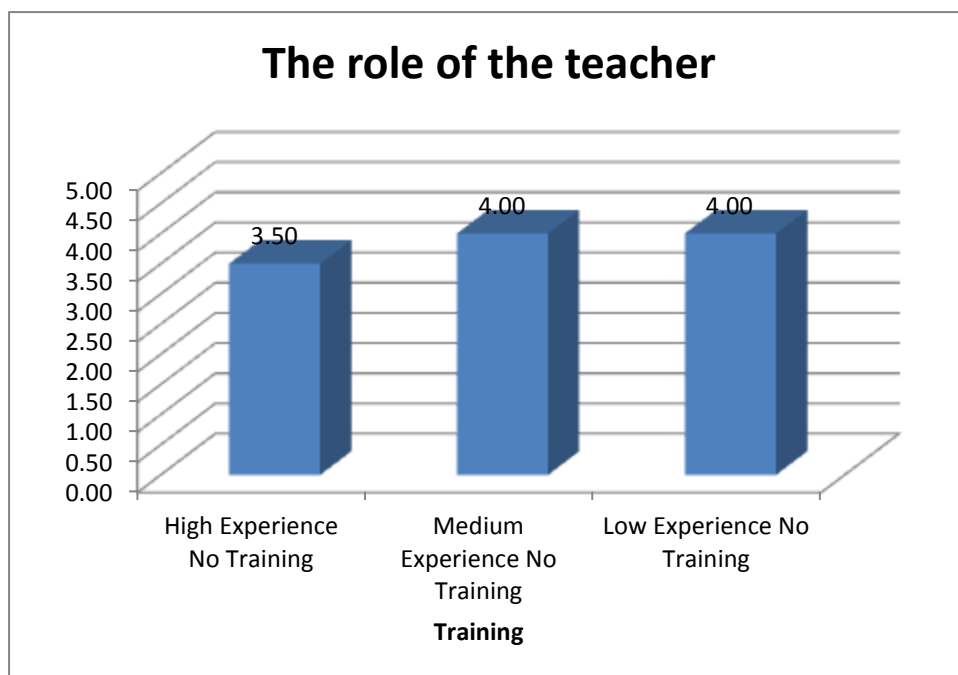


Figure 4.7 Graphical presentation of the comparison of the respondent's perception of the principles and practices of the communicative language teaching of teachers in terms of their role as teachers according to the level of Training.



#### 4.1.3.2.3 Group/ pair work activities

Table 4.55 shows a comparison of the respondents' perceptions of the principles and practices of the communicative language teaching of teachers in terms of group/ pair work according to levels of experience and training. For the level of experience, the p-value is 0.231, which indicates that the perceptions of the respondents across the levels of experience are statistically similar. Respondents who are educationally trained with medium-level experience and those who are educationally trained with low-level experience (3.0%) remain undecided, while educationally trained-high-experienced respondents (3.0%) agree with regard to group/pair work (see Figure 4.8).

In terms of the level of training, the p-value is 0.048, which means that there is a significant difference regarding the respondents' perceptions of group/pair work according to the level of training. As observed, non-educationally trained teachers with medium-level experience (3.5%) and non-educationally trained-high-experienced teachers (4.0%) agree on group/pair work, while non-educationally trained respondents with low-level experience (3.00) are undecided on this matter (see Figure 4.9).

Table 4.55 Shows Comparison of Participants' Perceptions of the Principles and Practices of the Communicative Language Teaching of Teachers in Terms of Group/Pair Work according to Levels of Experience and Training

		Median	The Kruskal- Wallis Statistic	p-value	Verbal Interpretation
Level of Experience	Educationally trained- high-experience teachers	3.50	1.934	.231	Not Significant
	Educationally trained- medium-experience	3.00			
	Educationally trained- low-experience teachers	3.00			
Training	Non-educationally trained-high- experience teachers	3.50	5.086	.048	Significant
	Non-educationally trained-medium- experience teachers	4.00			
	Non-educationally trained-low-experience teachers	3.00			

Figure 4.8 Shows Graphical presentation of the comparison of the respondents' perceptions of the principles and practices of the communicative language teaching of teachers in terms of group/pair work according to the level of Experience.

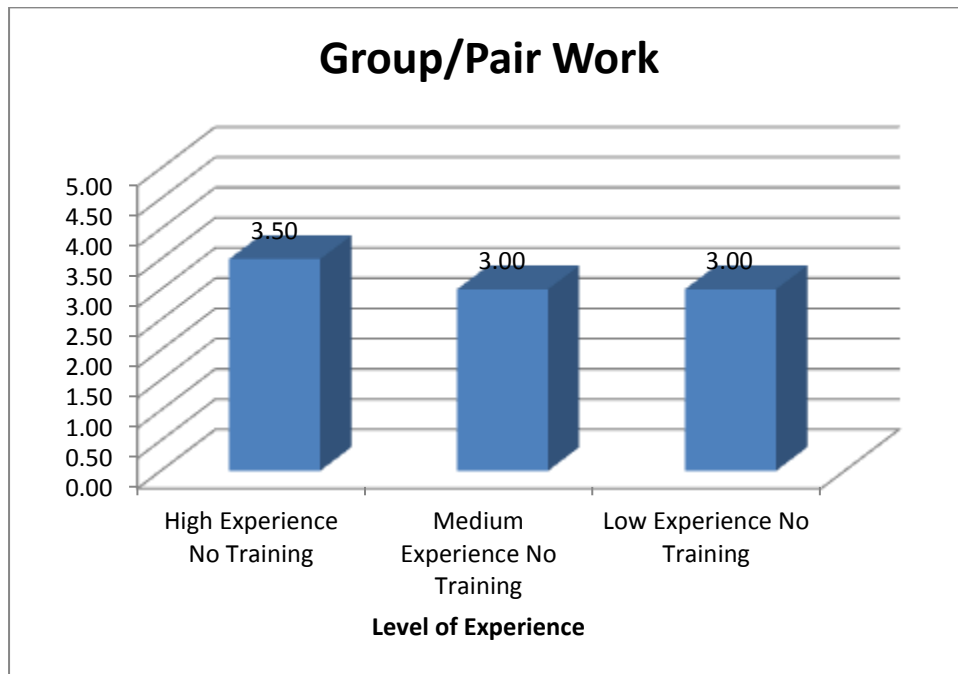
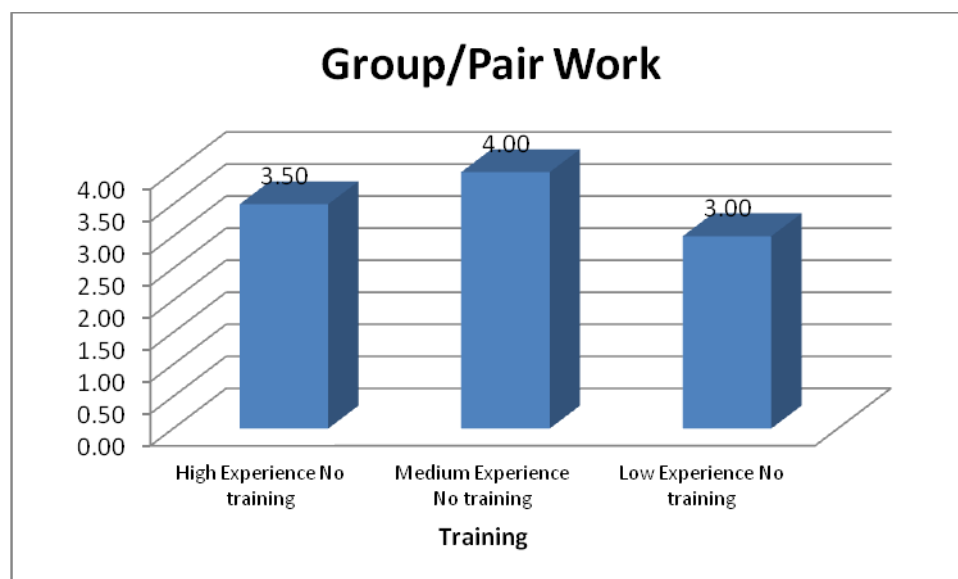


Figure 4.9 Shows Graphical presentation of the comparison of the respondents' perceptions of the principles and practices of the communicative language teaching of teachers in terms of group/pair work according to the level of Training.





#### 4.1.3.4 Summary of the questionnaire results

This portion provides a summary of the responses to the three question groups concerning the importance of grammar instruction, the role of the teacher, and group and pair work.

##### 4.1.3.4.1 Importance of grammar instruction

For the importance of grammar instruction, trained respondents with high, medium and low levels of experience had a positive response (agree or strongly agree) for the 1<sup>st</sup>, 3<sup>rd</sup>, 12<sup>th</sup> and 18<sup>th</sup> statements with mean values that fall within 3.50-4.49 and 4.50 to 5.00, but were undecided and/or negative (disagree or strongly disagree) for the 14<sup>th</sup> and 15<sup>th</sup> statements, with mean values that fall within 2.50-3.49, 1.50-2.49 and 1.00 to 1.49.

However, the responses differed for the 6<sup>th</sup>, 10<sup>th</sup>, 17<sup>th</sup> and 23<sup>rd</sup> statements. Those who were highly experienced or of medium experienced agreed that, in order for students to become effective communicators in the foreign language, the teachers' feedback must be focused on the appropriateness and not the linguistic form of the students' responses (Statement 6), while those with low levels of experience disagreed. Educationally trained-high-experienced teachers agreed that, unless all their grammatical errors are corrected, students will be at risk of imperfect learning (Statement 10), but those with a medium level of experience were undecided, and those with a low level of experience disagreed. Trained respondents with medium and low levels of experience were undecided as to whether mastering the rules of grammar means that students become fully capable of communicating with native speakers (Statement 17), although educationally trained-high-experienced teachers agreed. Non-educationally trained respondents with high and low degrees of experience agreed and strongly agreed that direct instructions in the rules and terminology of grammar are essential if students are to learn to communicate effectively (Statement 23), while those with medium experience were undecided.

Overall, educationally trained participants with low and high levels of experience agreed on the importance of grammar instruction, while those with a medium level of experience were undecided. Overall, the respondents agreed on the importance of grammar instruction with a median of 4 (2.0-5.0) (see Table 4.56)

Table 4.56 Shows Participants' Perceptions of the Principles and Practices of Communicative Language Teaching across Levels of Experience in Terms of the Importance of Grammar Instruction

Level of Experience											
Likert scale	Educationally trained-high-experience teachers			Educationally trained-medium-experience teachers			Educationally trained-low-experience teachers			Mean (Range)	Verbal Interpretation (VI)
	Median	Range	VI	Median	Range	VI	Median	Range	VI		
Statement 1	4.00	1-4	A	4.00	4-4	A	4.00	4-4	A	4 (2-5)	Agree
Statement 3	4.00	2-5	A	5.00	5-5	SA	4.00	4-4	A		
Statement 6	4.00	1-4	A	3.50	2-5	A	2.00	2-2	D		
Statement 10	4.00	2-5	A	3.00	2-4	U	2.00	2-2	D		
Statement 12	4.00	4-5	A	4.50	4-5	A	4.00	4-4	A		
Statement 14	3.00	1-4	U	2.00	2-2	D	3.00	2-4	U		
Statement 15	2.00	2-4	D	2.50	2-3	U	2.50	1-4	U		
Statement 17	4.00	1-4	A	3.00	2-4	U	2.50	2-3	U		
Statement 18	4.00	1-5	A	4.50	4-5	A	5.00	5-5	SA		
Statement 23	3.50	2-4	A	3.00	2-4	U	4.50	4-5	SA		
Overall	4.00	2-4	A	3.25	2-5	U	3.50	2-5	A		

\*VI is Verbal Interpretation, 1.00-1.49 (SD-Strongly Disagree), 1.50-2.49 (D-Disagree), 2.50-3.49 (U-Undecided), 3.50-4.49 (A-Agree), 4.50-5.00 (SA-Strongly Agree)

With regard to non-educationally trained level, teachers had different responses to the 1<sup>st</sup>, 6<sup>th</sup>, 10<sup>th</sup>, 14<sup>th</sup>, 18<sup>th</sup> and 23<sup>rd</sup> statements. Non-educationally trained teachers with medium and low levels of experience agreed that grammatical correctness is the most important criterion by which language performance should be judged. For students to become effective communicators in the foreign language, the teachers' feedback must be focused on the appropriateness and not on the linguistic form of the students' responses and, unless all their grammatical errors are corrected, students will be at risk of imperfect learning, although non-educationally trained-high-experienced teachers are undecided about this.

Those with high and medium experience and no training disagree because, since errors are a normal part of learning, too much time should not be spent in correction, although those with little experience and training agree on this. Lastly, those with high and low levels of experience but non-educationally trained agree that, for most students, language is acquired most effectively when it is used as a vehicle for doing something else rather than when it is studied as a primary goal in itself, and that direct instruction in the rules and terminology of grammar is essential if students are to learn to communicate effectively, although those with medium experience are undecided about this.

Overall, non-educationally trained teachers with low and medium levels of experience agree on the importance of grammar instruction, but those with greater levels of experience are undecided. Overall, the respondents agreed on the importance of grammar instruction with a median of 3.75 (2.0-4.5), (see Table 4.57).

Table 4.57 Shows Participants' Perceptions of Principles and Practices of the Communicative Language Teaching across Training in Terms of the Importance of Grammar Instruction

Level of Training											
Likert scale	Non-educationally trained-high-experience teachers			Non-educationally trained-medium-experience teachers			Non-educationally trained-low-experience teachers			Mean (Range)	Verbal Interpretation (VI)
	Median	Range	VI	Median	Range	VI	Median	Range	VI		
Statement 1	3.00	2-4	U	4.00	4-5	A	4.00	2-5	A	3.75 (2-4.5)	Agree
Statement 3	4.00	4-4	A	4.00	3-5	A	4.00	2-5	A		
Statement 6	3.00	2-4	U	4.00	2-4	A	4.00	2-4	A		
Statement 10	3.00	2-4	U	4.00	2-5	A	4.00	1-5	A		
Statement 12	4.50	4-5	SA	4.00	4-4	A	4.00	2-4	A		
Statement 14	2.00	2-2	D	2.00	2-4	D	4.00	1-5	A		
Statement 15	2.00	2-2	D	3.00	2-4	U	2.00	1-3	D		
Statement 17	3.00	2-4	U	2.00	2-3	D	2.00	1-4	D		
Statement 18	3.50	3-4	A	3.00	2-4	U	4.00	3-5	A		
Statement 23	3.50	3-4	A	3.00	2-3	U	4.00	2-4	A		
Overall	3.00	2-4.5	U	3.50	2-4	A	4.00	2-4	A		

\*VI is Verbal Interpretation, 1.00-1.49 (SD-Strongly Disagree), 1.50-2.49 (D-Disagree), 2.50-3.49 (U-Uncecided), 3.50-4.49 (A-Agree), 4.50-5.00 (SA-Strongly Agree)

#### 4.1.3.4.2 The teacher's role

The participant's responses across the level of experience differ for the 7<sup>th</sup>, 11<sup>th</sup> and 24<sup>th</sup> statements. Educationally trained teachers with high and low levels of experience agreed (agree and strongly disagree) that the teacher's role as "authority" and "instructor" no longer describes all the teacher's roles in the language classroom. However, those with medium levels of experience were undecided. Educationally trained teachers who were highly experienced and who had medium levels of experience disagreed that, in a large class, it is not possible to organise teaching so as to meet all individual needs; however, those less experienced agreed strongly with this statement. Lastly, educationally trained teachers with high and medium levels of experience agreed that, in order to meet all the students' needs and interests, the teacher must supplement the textbook with other materials and tasks, while those with low-experience were undecided.

Overall, educationally trained teachers with high and medium levels of experience agreed on the role of teachers, while those with low levels of experience strongly agreed. The overall respondents agreed on the role of teachers, with a median of 4.0 (1.5-5.0) (see Table 4.58).

Table 4.58 Shows Participants' Perceptions of Principles and Practices of Communicative Language Teaching across Levels of Experience in Terms of the Role of Teachers

Level of Experience											
Likert scale	Educationally trained-high-experience teachers			Educationally trained-medium-experience teachers			Educationally trained-low-experience teachers			Mean (Range)	Verbal Interpretation (VI)
	Median	Range	VI	Median	Range	VI	Median	Range	VI		
Statement 4	4.00	2-5	A	3.50	3-4	A	5.00	5-5	SA	4 (1.5-5)	Agree
Statement 5	2.50	1-5	U	3.00	2-4	U	3.00	2-4	U		
Statement 7	4.00	1-5	A	3.00	2-4	U	4.50	4-5	SA		
Statement 8	4.00	3-5	A	4.50	4-5	SA	4.50	4-5	SA		
Statement 11	2.00	1-4	D	1.50	1-2	D	4.50	4-5	SA		
Statement 16	4.00	4-5	A	4.50	4-5	SA	4.50	4-5	SA		
Statement 19	2.00	1-4	D	1.50	1-2	D	2.00	2-2	D		
Statement 20	4.00	2-5	A	4.00	4-4	A	4.50	4-5	SA		
Statement 24	4.00	1-5	A	3.50	3-4	A	3.00	2-4	U		
Overall	4.00	2-4	A	3.50	1.5-4.5	A	4.50	2-5	SA		

\*VI is Verbal Interpretation, 1.00-1.49 (SD-Strongly Disagree), 1.50-2.49 (D-Disagree), 2.50-3.49 (U-Uncecided), 3.50-4.49 (A-Agree), 4.50-5.00 (SA-Strongly Agree)

Participant's responses to training differ for the 5<sup>th</sup> and 20<sup>th</sup> statements. Non-educationally trained teachers with medium and low levels of experience agreed that training learners to take responsibility for their own learning is not feasible when learners are not used to such an approach, while those with a high level of experience were undecided. Non-educationally trained teachers with high and low levels of experience agreed that tasks and activities should be negotiated and adapted to suit the students' needs, rather than being determined by the teacher in advance, whereas non-educationally trained teachers with a medium amount of experience were undecided. Overall, non-educationally trained teachers with low, high and medium levels of experience agreed on the role of teachers, with mean values that fall within 3.50 and 4.49. The respondents agreed on the role of teachers with a mean of 4.0 (2.0-5.0) (see Table 4.59).

Table 4.59 Shows Participants' Perception of Principles and Practices of the Communicative Language Teaching across Levels of Experience in Terms of the Role of Teachers

Level of Training											
Likert scale	Non-educationally trained-high-experience teachers			Non-educationally trained-medium-experience teachers			Non-educationally trained-low-experience teachers			Mean (Range)	Verbal Interpretation (VI)
	Median	Range	VI	Median	Range	VI	Median	Range	VI		
Statement 4	4.00	4-4	A	4.00	4-5	A	4.00	2-5	A	4 (2-5)	Agree
Statement 5	3.00	2-4	U	4.00	2-4	A	4.00	1-5	A		
Statement 7	4.50	4-5	SA	4.00	3-4	A	4.00	3-5	A		
Statement 8	4.00	4-4	A	5.00	4-5	SA	4.00	3-5	A		
Statement 11	2.50	2-3	U	2.00	2-3	D	3.00	2-4	U		
Statement 16	4.50	4-5	SA	4.00	2-4	A	4.00	1-4	A		
Statement 19	2.50	2-3	U	2.00	1-2	D	2.00	1-3	D		
Statement 20	3.50	3-4	A	3.00	2-4	U	4.00	2-4	A		
Statement 24	3.50	3-4	A	5.00	3-5	SA	4.00	2-5	A		
Overall	3.50	2.5-4.5	A	4.00	2-5	A	4.00	2-4	A		

\*VI is Verbal Interpretation, 1.00-1.49 (SD-Strongly Disagree), 1.50-2.49 (D-Disagree), 2.50-3.49 (U-Undecided), 3.50-4.49 (A-Agree), 4.50-5.00 (SA-Strongly Agree)

#### 4.1.3.4.3 Group and pair work activities

Participant's responses across levels of experience differ for the 2<sup>nd</sup>, 13<sup>th</sup>, 21<sup>st</sup> and 22<sup>nd</sup> statements. Educationally trained respondents with high and low degrees of experience agreed that group work activities are essential for cooperative relationships and productive interactions among students, while educationally trained teachers with medium experience were undecided. Those with high and low levels of experience were undecided whether group work activities were an efficient use of planning and teaching time, while those with a medium level of experience agreed. Educationally trained teachers with medium and low levels of experience were undecided whether small group work may occasionally be useful to vary the routine, or if it should be secondary to sound, formal instruction by a competent teacher, and whether group work activities have limited value since it is very difficult for the teacher to monitor the students' performance and to prevent them from using their mother tongue, while highly experienced teachers agreed on this point.

Overall, educationally trained teachers with low and medium levels of experience were undecided on group and pair work activities, while those with high levels agreed, with



median values that fall within 3.50 and 4.49. Overall, the respondents agreed with regard to group and pair work activities, with a mean of 3.5 (2.5-4.0) (see Table 4.60).

Table 4.60 Shows Participants' Perceptions of the Principles and Practices of Communicative Language Teaching in Terms of Group/ Pair Work Activities for Educationally-trained Experience teachers

Level of Experience											
Likert scale	Educationally trained-high-experience teachers			Educationally trained-medium-experience teachers			Educationally trained-low-experience teachers			Mean (Range)	Verbal Interpretation (VI)
	Median	Range	VI	Median	Range	VI	Median	Range	VI		
Statement 2	4.00	1-5	A	3.00	2-4	U	3.50	3-4	A	3.5 (2.5-4)	Agree
Statement 9	4.00	2-5	A	4.00	4-4	A	3.50	2-5	A		
Statement 13	3.00	1-4	U	3.50	3-4	A	3.00	2-4	U		
Statement 21	3.50	2-4	A	3.00	2-4	U	2.50	1-4	U		
Statement 22	3.50	2-5	A	3.00	2-4	U	3.00	2-4	U		
Overall	3.50	3-4	A	3.00	3-4	U	3.00	2.5-3.5	U		

\*VI is Verbal Interpretation, 1.00-1.49 (SD-Strongly Disagree), 1.50-2.49 (D-Disagree), 2.50-3.49 (U-Undecided), 3.50-4.49 (A-Agree), 4.50-5.00 (SA-Strongly Agree)

Participant's responses across training differed for the 2<sup>nd</sup> and 13<sup>th</sup> statements. Non-educationally trained teachers with a high degree of experience strongly agreed that group work activities are essential for cooperative relationships and productive interactions among

students, while those with a medium level agreed and those with a low level of experience were undecided. On the other hand, non-educationally trained teachers with low and high levels of experience were undecided whether group work activities were an efficient use of planning and teaching time, while those with medium levels agreed that they were. Overall, Non-educationally trained teachers with high and medium levels of experience agreed about group and pair work activities with median values that fall within 3.50 and 4.49, while those with low levels were undecided. Overall, the respondents agreed about group and pair work activities with a mean of 3.5 (2.0-4.0) (see Table 4.61).

Table 4.61 Shows Participants' Perceptions of the Principles and Practices of Communicative Language Teaching in Terms of Group and Pair Work Activities for Non-educationally-trained Experience teachers.

Level of Training											
Likert scale	Non-educationally trained-high-experience teachers			Non-educationally trained-medium-experience teachers			Non-educationally trained-low-experience teachers			Mean (Range)	Verbal Interpretation (VI)
	Median	Range	Verbal Interpretation	Median	Range	Verbal Interpretation	Median	Range	Verbal Interpretation		
Statement 2	4.50	4-5	Strongly Agree	4.00	3-4	Agree	3.00	1-4	Undecided	3.5 (2-4.5)	Agree
Statement 9	3.50	3-4	Agree	4.00	4-4	Agree	4.00	2-5	Agree		
Statement 13	3.00	2-4	Undecided	4.00	2-4	Agree	3.00	1-4	Undecided		
Statement 21	3.00	2-4	Undecided	2.00	2-4	Disagree	2.00	2-4	Disagree		
Statement 22	3.50	3-4	Agree	4.00	2-4	Agree	4.00	2-4	Agree		
Overall	3.50	3-4.5	Agree	4.00	2-4	Agree	3.00	2-4	Undecided		

\*VI is Verbal Interpretation, 1.00-1.49 (SD-Strongly Disagree), 1.50-2.49 (D-Disagree), 2.50-3.49 (U-Undecided), 3.50-4.49 (A-Agree), 4.50-5.00 (SA-Strongly Agree)

#### 4.1.3.5 Discussion

##### 4.1.3.5.1 Classroom Observation

Both educationally trained-experienced teachers and non-educationally trained-experienced teachers were more focused on teaching language in terms of Form and Other Topics. Similar to their responses in the interview and questionnaire data analysis, their priority is on linguistic structures or grammar and pronunciation, and on enhancing the ability of the students by listening, singing, reading silently and making oral presentations. Listening plays a highly significant role in students' improvement since it enhances the fluency of the listener, which is related to how a student speaks, and allows the minds of the students to search for the meaning of the words they have heard. Teaching language through Other Topics enhances teaching language in terms of Form, because students cannot acquire knowledge by simply learning rules as they also have to apply them, which can be through Other Topics.

Function and Discourse are not quite visible particularly during early communicative teaching, as they may be above the students' level and present a deeper analysis of context in language structure. However, by focusing on Form, a teacher may be able to provide a glimpse of Function and Discourse. Teachers, as those who bridge the gap between the learners' abilities and the things they have to know, are willing to adjust in order for the students to be able to learn effectively. This is why, even though Function and Discourse play a role in language structure, they have to skip these aspects or make them a lesser priority in order to focus on that which the students can cope.

When a teacher focuses on a student or on a class, participation among students is more likely to occur due to the environment in which all the participants have an equal opportunity to learn and to explore the issues and ideas in depth. Since the teachers' focus is on monitoring the improvement of the students individually and as a whole, an interactive conversation often occurs because the students know that, whenever they share opinions, their teachers are there to listen to their comments and to be looked up to. This enables the students to establish trust and acceptance by the teachers, and encourages them to respond more fully.

Sometimes learning in pairs boosts the interest and willingness of the students, because it enables them to share their willingness to learn, which they may find embarrassing to express

in the classroom. However, this does not occur often, because teachers want to determine the individual willingness of their students and be able to correct them instantly.

Teachers spend more time on Reading than on Speaking, Listening and Writing. Reading provides a variety of benefits for learners. It enhances their writing skills, as well as their ability to speak. Through reading, learners are able to encounter words repeatedly, which increases their curiosity and inspires them to search for meanings, thus increasing their vocabulary. This also helps them to enhance their knowledge of linguistic structures, because what they have seen is already an output. This also gives scope for correction of the students.

Speaking, Listening and Writing have the average amount time devoted to language skills taught by both trained and untrained experienced teachers. This is because Speaking, Listening and Writing influence each other, as the way someone writes affects how he/she speaks or pronounces the words, and the way someone listens affects how he or she speaks.

#### 4.1.3.5.2 Interviews

The interaction between speaking and listening enables the students to improve their skills. The teachers are aware that learning a language like English will prepare the students in the future, which is why they want to force them to use it as early as possible. One way of doing this is to follow up the students individually and to limit their classroom conversation tasks to pairs or groups during the class because it is likely that compromises will occur. Even during class hours, the English-only system seems to be impossible because teachers have to explain certain vocabulary that the students are only able to understand when expressed using the mother tongue. Teachers, whether trained or without training, are passionate about teaching the students the foreign language.

They are willing to extend their best efforts not just for the short term improvement of the students, but also for their long term improvement.

Teachers, whether they are educationally trained-experienced or non-educationally trained-experienced wanted the best for their students. They are still looking for ways to teach their students effectively. It is their role to evaluate CLT and other possible methods, as well as to see how these can affect the students. They see that implementing CLT seems to be impossible for Libyan secondary schools due to its probable limitations, such as using only

English in the class. In addition is the lack of resources available in Libyan secondary schools. According to Breen and Candlin (1980: 99) the teachers' roles are to "facilitate the communication process between all participants in the classroom". Xiaoju (1984: 10) also refers to this as "the communicative teacher's role is neither to give lectures nor to supply correct answers...the teacher's job is only to provide the *conditions* for this communicative process, set it going, observe it, try to understand it, give guidance, help it along, analyze and evaluate it".

Teachers, as providers of knowledge in the classroom, are aware that learners cannot acquire the rules of grammar just by listening, which is why they teach the language to them by explaining the words and by drills to improve their communicative activities. Even though their views on fluency and accuracy vary, both groups are aware of the importance of real communicative purposes, particularly with regard to management and routines in class. The teachers believe that accuracy in language occurs one step at a time, which is why they correct the identified errors immediately if opportunity permits, so that the students will be aware of the correct way of speaking and using the language.

The teachers viewed grammatical errors as bad models, which is why they correct and to remind the students about the proper usage of language, its structure and its purpose. Since pair or group discussions are often needed for the students to display their acquired skills to their fellow students, some of the errors that occur during a communicative activity may be ignored. Teachers, on the other hand, extend their patience for the benefit of the students. Oral and written assessment can be used to assess the students' communicative competence. The teachers wanted the students to express how productive they are through the application of what they have learned, such as speaking and writing. Writing allows the teachers to know the extent to which the learners understand the words, since writing and reading are closely related. This is the same for speaking and listening.

In order for them to improve by implementing a new approach such as CLT, training and the provision of financial and teaching aids is necessary. However, even though they perceived that they lack materials, training and financial support, their passion to teach and pass their knowledge on to their students means that they will continue to strive towards their goals until the students become proficient or will at least be able to use the language. For them, proficiency means that the students can comply with the rules of both grammar and fluency, thus resulting in long-term benefits of the students.

#### 4.1.3.5.3 Questionnaire

In general, the respondents are fully aware of the importance of grammar instruction for communicative language teaching. They understand that accuracy is one of the most important aspects of learning a language, and that they must keep an eye on this area. However, apart from this priority, the thought of its negative effect still lingers, since knowledge of the rules alone will not guarantee the ability of the students to use the language. In addition to it, errors are more likely to occur. This reveals that, aside from focusing of linguistic instruction for a language, the teachers also explained the necessity thereof. Furthermore, one of the aims of the communicative approach is to improve the fluency of the students, and the teachers really believe they will also see an improvement in the students' fluency by using the communicative approach. Given that the teachers' priority is on both accuracy and fluency, particularly with regard to early teaching methods, accuracy is promoted over fluency. This method seems acceptable, since fluency in using a language comes about when the students are taught to use the language, rather than the usage thereof.

Both groups of respondents, educationally trained-experienced and non-educationally trained-experienced, see themselves as providing knowledge and guidance for the students to achieve the primary goal of the communicative approach. They are aware that this role is limited to the topics they are teaching, but they are always aware of extending themselves, since continuing knowledge input will not cause the students to apply the knowledge they have learned, especially if they cannot apply it outside the classroom or school. Being labelled as a "provider of knowledge" in the classroom (see, as well as someone with authority over the students, gives them a certain responsibility that encourages them to be self-disciplined. In return, they can pass this on to the students who see them as role models.

Non-educationally trained-experienced teachers have different views of being effective communicators of the foreign language, as they believe that appropriateness and grammatical correctness are keys to being effective communicators. However, educationally trained-experienced teachers believed that both appropriateness and the ability to apply the linguistic form are necessary. Non-educationally trained-experienced teachers emphasised the use of language for higher purposes rather than for survival, which contrasts them to trained teachers, since their emphasis is on creating a balance between accuracy and fluency.

Educationally trained-experienced teachers are aware that the constant application of direct instruction, such as grammatical correction and the proper linguistic form of sentences; make students effective communicators. However, they are sensitive to the tasks and activities of the students, and believe that these issues should be negotiated and adapted to suit the students' needs rather than being determined by the teacher in advance. Trained teachers wanted to be strict yet cautious about approaching the students and encouraging them to learn. To be effective teachers, trained teachers are aware that they have to build a bridge between what the students already know and what they need to learn. This bridge varies with according to their capacity to acquire the knowledge and adapt it to their respective environments.

Non-educationally trained-experienced respondents know that procrastination often makes students unable to learn by themselves unless they are able to apply what they have learned in the classroom outside of the classroom. However, this may be possible if they are provided with tools that they can use to practice. Teachers, as providers of knowledge, believe that tools for learning are essential; including textbooks and other materials, and those tasks must also be given to students. However, educationally trained-experienced teachers create a balance when using teaching aids, since they know that students must also participate for their own improvement.

The role of pair/ group learning enables the students to explore problems themselves and thus gives them control or self-discipline in terms of their own learning. However, since one of the goals of educationally trained-experienced teachers is to monitor their student's activities, particularly their accuracy and fluency when speaking the language, they sometimes discourage the use of this method.

By assessing the findings of the questionnaire data analysis, the interview data analysis and classroom observation, we can conclude that the teachers' responses matched. The questionnaire and interview data analyses reveal that the teachers focus on the accuracy and fluency of the students; thus, they are looking for ways to improve these aspects. This also reveals how passionate they are about teaching the students, which is why they wanted to maintain their roles as providers of knowledge by bridging the gap between the capacity and the ability of the students, and the things that the students have to know. The classroom observations also reveal that, in the search for excellence in teaching, the teachers are looking for practical and creative ways to teach the students effectively. The interview data analysis

reveals that, based on what the teachers perceived, CLT may not be applicable for secondary students at present due to its perceived limitations. However, classroom observations reveal that students might be ready for this approach or other possible approaches, as long as these fulfil the students' needs.



## Chapter 5 Conclusion

### 5.0 Introduction

The aim of this present study, as indicated in the introduction to this thesis, is to answer the research questions and to discover whether secondary EFL teachers implement the CLT approach in Libya. This study, using Libya as an example, investigated teachers' attitudes and beliefs regarding the CLT approach and the challenges that teachers encounter in implementing the CLT approach in their classes.

This chapter will include the major findings of the study, answers to the research questions, the implications of this study and its limitations, along with corresponding recommendations for future research and overall conclusions.

### 5.1 Findings

Because the teachers are quite focused on ability of the students or learners to speak accurately and fluently, they are looking for other ways to improve their communicative skills without compromising accuracy and fluency. As providers of knowledge and guidance in the classroom, teachers want to bridge the gap between the capacity and ability of the students and the things that the students need to know by assessing them individually, or according to how they perform communicatively in the class. Thus, even though CLT may have other positive outcomes, they prefer not to use it since they want the students to balance accuracy and fluency. Therefore, the teachers are looking for practical and creative ways to teach their students effectively. Based on the responses of the educationally trained-high-experienced teachers and those with medium and low levels of experience, as well as non-educationally trained respondents with high, medium and low levels of experience, CLT may not be applicable for Libyan secondary students, at least at this stage, due to its perceived limitations, although students might be ready for this approach or other possible approaches as long as they can be modified to the student's needs and the long-term benefits of the learners (see section 2.14).

## 5.2 Research questions

### 1- Do secondary EFL teachers implement the CLT approach?

Educationally trained-high-experienced teachers, as well as those with medium and low levels and non-educationally trained respondents with high, medium and low levels of experience responded that they do not implement the CLT approach in their respective classrooms or schools. One reason for this is its focus on meaning rather than on the form of a language. Educationally trained-high-experienced teachers, non-educationally trained-medium-experienced teachers and non-educationally trained-low-experienced teachers believe that real communicative purposes result only in fluency, while educationally trained teachers with medium and low levels of experience, as well as non-educationally trained-high-experienced teachers believe that it will result in both fluency and accuracy. However, even though respondents across levels of experience and training responded that students should be forced to communicate in English; one of the reasons that hinders them is when the respondents are grouped in pairs or groups, as they interact in Arabic. Educationally trained-high-experienced and non-educationally trained-high-experienced teachers said that it is possible to only speak English in the classroom, but the majority of the respondents, particularly educationally trained teachers with medium and educationally trained teachers with low-experience, non-educationally trained teachers with medium-experience and non-educationally trained teachers with low-experiences responded that it is impossible. This is because the teachers need to explain the vocabulary and other grammatical structures via their mother tongue (see section, 2.13).The Libyan National Commission for Education, Culture and Science (2001: 22) reported that most Libyan teachers do not undertake training in teaching. Teachers across all levels of experience and training responded that they do not speak English with their learners all the time. According to Kumaravadivelu (2006), language learning is incidental rather than intentional, that it focuses on meaning rather than forms, on comprehension rather than production and language development is cyclical rather than additive(see sections, 2.7; 2.12.3 and 2.12.4).

This reveals that CLT focuses on the importance of listening as the main tool for learning the language. However, the respondents across all levels of experience and training believe that listening is not the only important skill in learning a foreign language, but that speaking is also important. The teachers believe that listening alone enables the students to become used

to the sound, but they cannot acquire the rules of grammar just by listening. Thus, fluency will be developed more than will accuracy, which is most important for the learners according to the teachers.

CLT focuses on the communicative approach, which relies more on application and meaning through listening. Both levels of experience and training teachers believe that it is impossible to teach grammar just by listening and without explanations or drills; thus, even though they use language for real communicative purposes, the goal of being proficient in terms of the accuracy of language form may not be achieved because it is more likely to result in communicative survival or fluency. Also, one of the reasons they do not implement CLT is because the errors during communicative activity are more likely to occur and are often ignored by teachers if the situation permits (Larsen-Freeman, 2000; Richards and Rogers, 2001). This scenario often occurs because learners are not expected to know and apply the grammatical rules perfectly; it often takes one step at a time. At this point, those educationally trained-high-experienced teachers and educationally trained teachers with low-experience often ignore grammatical errors during a communicative activity, as did those respondents who were non-educationally trained with high, medium and low levels of experience. On the other hand, trained teachers with medium levels of experience responded that they do not ignore errors and correct them immediately (see sections, 2.1; 2.2).

Lastly, the CLT approach may not be used to assess the development of linguistic competence. Teachers with levels of experience and training believe that, in order for a teacher to assess the development of linguistic competence of a student, they need to do this orally and through writing because the teachers will be able to understand how learners can apply the form and structure of the language. They also have to test the grammatical competence of the learners. However, communicative competence can also be measured via the same testing procedure.

## 2- What are the teachers' attitudes and beliefs regarding the CLT approach?

Teachers with levels of experience and training consider grammatical instructions to be very important in the CLT approach.

For educationally trained-high-experienced teachers, grammatical proficiency in a communicative approach is acquired when the students become effective communicators in

the foreign language. Thus, the teachers' feedback should be focused on appropriateness and not on the linguistic form. They also believe that students will be at risk of imperfect learning if their grammatical errors are not corrected; thus, there is a need to master the rules of grammar. Lastly, educationally trained teachers with low experience do not believe that teachers' feedback must be focused on the appropriateness and not on the linguistic form in order for the students to become effective communicators in the foreign language (see section, 2.8). For them, imperfect learning of a language is not accounted for by grammatical errors alone, but by other factors as well. However, direct instructions in the rules and terminology of grammar are essential if students are to learn to communicate effectively.

Non-educationally trained-high-experienced teachers believe that, even though errors often occur in learning a foreign language, they must not tolerate this. The importance of application is essential; thus, they believe that language is acquired most effectively when it is used as a vehicle for doing something rather than when it is studied as an end in itself, and that direct instructions in the rules and terminology of grammar are essential if students are to learn to communicate effectively. Non-educationally trained teachers with medium-experience, on the other hand, believe that grammatical correctness is the most important criterion whereby language performance should be judged. They agree on the importance of teachers' feedback, which must be focused on the appropriateness and not on the linguistic form. Thus, grammatical errors are corrected immediately, even though may be time-consuming. Lastly, non-educationally trained teachers with low experience believe in the importance of grammatical correctness as a criterion by which language performance should be judged; thus, direct instruction in the rules and terminology of grammar are essential if students are to learn to communicate effectively. For them, effective communication in the foreign language is guided by the teachers' feedback, which is focused on the appropriateness and not on the linguistic form of the students' responses. This is why they agree that errors are a normal part of learning, and that they must not spend a lot of time on correcting grammatical errors. The application of language is even important to non-educationally trained teachers with low experience, which is why they believe that language is acquired most effectively when it is used as a vehicle for doing something than when studied as an end in itself, and that direct instruction in the rules is important (see section, 2.9).

Teachers with experience and training believe that the role of the teacher is very important in teaching the CLT approach, as well as the importance of group or pair work.

Educationally trained-high-experienced teachers believe that they have authority as instructors and providers of knowledge, which is why, even in a large class, they believe that it is possible to organise teaching so as to meet individual needs. They even believe that the teacher should supplement the textbook with other materials and tasks. However, According to Johnson and Arena (1995) teachers worried about not being able control students in oral communication tasks and to control discipline in large classes. Teachers also concerned about not being able to assess written and oral assignments for communication tasks.

Similarly, Li (1998) and Burnaby and Sun (1989) reported that the participants in their study large classes limited the implementation of the CLT approach. Li added, for classroom management, the participants faced difficulties in implementing the CLT activities. Some of the major difficulties facing teachers to use CLT are: large class, noisy classes, which hindered teacher to give individual attention to students, and not being able to assess oral and written assignments.

Educationally trained teachers with medium-level experience also believe that it is possible to organise teaching to meet individual needs, even they have larger class sizes, thus meeting all the students' needs and interests, by providing textbooks in conjunction with other materials provided by the teachers. Lastly, educationally trained teachers with low experience, like educationally trained-high-experienced teachers, believe in their authority in the class room. However, this is limited when the class is large. Non-educationally trained-high-experienced teachers believe that tasks and activities should be negotiated and adapted to suit the students' needs, rather than being determined by the teacher in advance. Non-educationally trained teachers with medium-experience believe that learners taking responsibility for their own learning is not feasible when learners are not engaged in such an approach, while non-educationally trained teachers with low-experience agree regarding the role of learners, as well as concerning the tasks and activities that should be negotiated and adapted to suit the students' needs rather than being determined by the teacher.

Educationally trained-high-experienced teachers believe that group work activities are essential for cooperative relationships and productive interactions among students; also, group work activities have limited value, since it is very difficult for the teacher to monitor the students' performance and to prevent them from using their mother tongue. Educationally trained teachers with medium experience believe that group work activities are not an

efficient use of planning and teaching time. On the other hand, educationally trained teachers with low-level experience agree that group work activities are essential for cooperative relationships and productive interactions among students. Non-educationally trained-high-experienced teachers believe that group work activities are essential for cooperative relationships and productive interactions among students. Non-educationally trained teachers with medium-experience teachers also agree that group work activities are not an efficient use of planning and teaching time (see section, 2.11).

When it comes to communicative competence, which is an essential part of the CLT approach, teachers with various levels of experience and training believe that communicative competence can be measured by oral testing. Teachers with various levels of experience and training believe that one of the ways to test communicative skill is by testing it orally. Teachers were able to assess this through management and the routines they often use in English. This can contribute to individual social adjustment and participation. On the other hand, they believe that linguistic competence can be measured orally and in writing, because it refers to how productive a student is. Through the oral test, the students learn the sound system, while writing enables them to understand the writing system and structure. For this communicative competence, the teachers with various levels of experience and training say that grammatical competence is what they measured the most. This indicates that teachers who were educationally trained-experienced or non-educationally trained-experienced agree that, as with other approaches, communicative competence using the CLT approach can also be measured, and it can also be measured in the same manner as the others. However, we can see that, even though the focus of the CLT approach is more on the communicative approach and less on language form, teachers at both levels of education agree to retain their focus on the grammatical competence of their students (see section, 2.3).

For accuracy and fluency, given that the aim is communicative competence instead of linguistic competence, the majority of the teachers across all levels of experience and training responded that they would correct them immediately because they believe that correcting errors immediately is necessary for the students to be proficient. Corrections may include grammar presentations and exercises. These enable the students to produce grammatically correct written and spoken English. This reveals that the teachers deal with the errors from the students creatively rather than as something to be alarmed about. This also reveals their attitudes towards the CLT approach, because what they aim at is somewhat different from the CLT approach. In this regard, they wanted to create a balance regarding the two different

views. However, educationally trained-high-experienced teachers and educationally trained teachers with low-experience responded that it possible to teach fluency before accuracy, while educationally trained teachers with medium-experience responded that it is possible to teach both accuracy and fluency as the same time. Non-educationally trained-high-experienced and non-educationally trained teachers with little experience also responded that it possible to teach fluency before accuracy, while non-educationally trained teachers with medium-experience responded that both accuracy and fluency can occur. This indicates that teachers across all levels of experience and training have different views about the possibility of the outcome of teaching using a certain approach. Since accuracy seems more difficult to learn than fluency, it is expected that the learners will be able to learn fluency before accuracy. In line with this, educationally trained-high-experienced teachers and educationally trained teachers with medium-experience teach fluency before accuracy, while educationally trained teachers with low-experience responded that they taught fluency and accuracy at the same time. In terms of training, non-educationally trained-high-experienced teachers, non-educationally trained teachers with medium-experience and non-educationally teachers with low-experience responded that they teach fluency before accuracy. Teachers believed that teaching both fluency and accuracy is better; however, since accuracy is more difficult than fluency, learners are more able to cope with fluency than with accuracy. This means that the teachers are somewhat aware that students may not be able to cope with grammatical issues when learning a language, which is why they prefer to teach fluency first. We can see here that the attitude of the teachers is that they are willing and open to use the CLT approach for the students in terms of short-term benefits. However, they wanted the students to know that language form, function and language discourse remain important in learning a foreign language; thus, they would not be able to maintain this balance, but they will balance the need to be fluent and the need to be accurate at the same time.

By observing the responses of the respondents concerning COLT in classroom observations, it can be seen that teachers focus on both Form and Other Topics, wherein the students listen to a dialogue or a text on tape or read by the teacher, sing, read silently and make oral presentations. In order for the students to be proficient, the teachers believe that their role involves the provision of meaningful communication in class. They are aware of the importance of making the meaning clear through body language, gestures and visual support. Also, music allows learners to acquire information naturally and presents information as parts and wholes. Singing gives students the opportunity to reduce the information into parts yet

work with it as a whole (BBC, 2009). Here we can see that the content taught to the students, as well as the contents of tasks in their lessons plans in terms of both Form and Listening. This means that teachers are really creating a balance between fluency through listening and application and accuracy through language in terms of form. If the teacher tried to cover form, meaning and use in every lesson, ensuring that students know all the ins and outs of a grammatical structure or word, then not much would get done. What is more, the class would be likely to be quite boring (Better Language Teaching, 2004). Most teachers and students would agree that there is a need for more classroom presentation and practice of language for communicative functions, but there are also obvious pressures in the opposite direction, which include the ease with which one can usually skip the functional language part of the textbook, especially as it often has a tenuous connection at best to the rest of the unit and is not really recycled in the rest of the book, in addition to the difficulty of grading and testing functional language (see Wilkins, 1976; Richards and Rodgers, 2001; Howatt and Widdowson, 2004; Phillips, et al., 2008; 2008a). However, we can also observe that this balance does not take the form of giving a lot of pair work activities to the students. Teachers who are educated and non-educated prefer to observe the students via Teacher to Class or Teacher to Student organisation (see section, 2.7). Pair/ group work is discouraged, because the teachers are aware that they will not be able to practice English communicatively since the students are more likely to speak Arabic or their native language than the language that is being taught (see section, 2.11). The goals of participation in the classroom create an environment in which all participants have the opportunity to learn, and in which the class explores issues and ideas in depth from a variety of viewpoints (see Macaro, 1997; Huda, 1999; see also section, 2.11). We can also observe that the teachers have a positive attitude and belief regarding the CLT approach, even though it focuses more on fluency than on accuracy. It is also observed that the teachers who are educationally trained-experienced and non-educationally trained-experienced, not only try to create a balance between fluency and accuracy, but also between the participation of teachers and students. They believe that students must also work for their own good, especially when the class involves studying at home or practicing communicative approaches in their respective environments. Student motivation has to do with the students' desire to participate in the learning process. However, it also concerns the reasons or goals that underlie their involvement in academic activities. Students work longer, harder and with more intensity when they are motivated than when they are not. In other words, motivation helps individuals overcome inertia. This is because, in the teaching-learning process, as in other various activities, there should be something that



propels their mind or encourages them to be more active and vibrant. In classroom teaching, the major task is to nurture students' curiosity as a motivation for learning (Shabait, 2010, see also 2.11).

The attitude and beliefs of the teachers towards the CLT approach were also seen by the average time they spent on reading, because this is where the participants can practice the proper pronunciation of words that can be used in the communicative approach. Reading is the most readily available form of comprehensible input, especially in places where there is hardly any contact with the target language. If carefully chosen to suit learners' levels, it offers repeated encounters with language items they already know. This helps them to consolidate what they already know and to extend it. There is no way any learner will encounter a new language enough times to learn it in the limited number of hours in class. The only reliable way to learn a language is through extensive and repeated exposure to it in context (BBC, 2009). Also, oral reading serves as a very valuable source of assessment information for teachers and for the students themselves. As they read aloud, students become aware of word identification problems and look for ways to correct them. By listening to a student's oral reading, a teacher can gain valuable insight into the student's word identification strategies and the degree of that student's fluency (see section, 2.12).

Overall, it was observed that the teachers who are educated and non-educationally trained-experienced have positive attitude and beliefs regarding the CLT approach, as they wanted to create a balance between accuracy and fluency, focusing on language in terms of Form and Other Topics, spending some time reading and using Teacher to Student or Teacher to Class organisation, and some on students' individual participation in learning.

3- What are the challenges that teachers encounter in implementing the CLT approach in their classes in Libyan secondary schools?

Teachers who are educationally trained-experienced and non-educationally trained-experienced responded that there are challenges in implementing the CLT approach in classes in Libyan secondary schools. The challenges are divided into two, the internal that focuses on the content of the CLT approach and the external, which focuses on the resources for implementing this approach, the lack of adequate training, class size and time, the students' and the teacher's proficiency, and the lack of training (see Li, 1998 and section, 2.12).

According to Al Nouh (2008), a strong to CLT is not favoured by many teachers and educationalists for many reasons, but mainly because of its neglect of a focus on Form, which results in learners who are fluent but inaccurate. The same observation was also seen among teachers who are educated and non-educationally trained-experienced, since all of them focused on the content of their teaching as well as on the content of the tasks in their lesson plans in terms of Form, as well as on improving it through Other Topics. The form of the language is important because it categories the types of words and the groups of words that make up sentences. Also, when teaching language in terms of Form; the teacher may include some discourse and function, since these are also accompanied by language structure and grammar. Thus, the teachers who are educated and non-educationally trained-experienced believe that teaching language in terms of form not only improves the accuracy of the students, but does not compromise fluency and may also cover other important topics of language teaching, such as discourse and function. Thus, if a learning system does not focus on language in terms of form or anything in relation to it, teachers find it difficult to manage the flow of teaching, as well as the information that is presented to the students.

One of the problems in implementing this approach is the lack of resources and facilities, since resources are not available at their respective schools. Approaches like CLT also require financial and scholarly support; thus, even though the teachers are passionate about teaching the students, they are hindered by situational problems, and class size maybe one of the reasons. However, this depends on how the teachers manage their classrooms. Teachers who are educated and non-educationally trained-experienced responded that they have more than 40 students in their classrooms. This is one of the reasons that teachers may often ignore or be unable to track errors due to the unequal proportion of teacher to student. Teacher proficiency is not a problem, since teachers who are educated and non-educationally trained-experienced responded that they use the English language fluently and appropriately in the classroom. However, for these teachers, student fluency affects the implementation of CLT. If the student is proficient in learning a foreign language such as English, the CLT programme may be easier to implement, since students already comply with the rules of grammar; thus, the communicative approach will improve their fluency and possibly even their accuracy. With regard to the lack of training, teachers who are educated and non-educated responded that they received adequate training to implement CLT. However, low levels of experience and no training indicate that teachers do not feel that they receive adequate training to implement CLT. Aside from the training for implementing CLT, teachers

have not undertaken training courses recently, possibly because of a lack of opportunity and support from the authorities or governing bodies (see sections, 2.2; 2.12.5 and 2.13).

### 5.3 Implications for the Study

This study is consistent with existing research findings regarding the implementation of the CLT approach. For example, Altan (1995), Burnaby and Sun (1997), Li (1998), Gorsuch (2000), Al-Nouh 2008, Orafi and Borg (2009) and Shiba (2011) found similar constraints in their research. The result of this study reveals that the attitudes and beliefs of teachers regarding the CLT approach in terms of grammatical instruction and the role of teachers matches the results of the COLT evaluation and interview questions (see chapter 4).

1. In terms of grammatical instruction, teachers across all levels of experience and training believe that accuracy or linguistic structure and form is the most important aspect of learning a language. This is why, aside from focusing on linguistic instruction in a language, the teachers also explained the use and necessity thereof.
2. With regard to the role of the teachers, they believed that they would see an improvement in the students' fluency as a result of using the communicative approach.

This study therefore provides additional proof that the CLT approach is effective, and that interaction is both the means and the ultimate goal of learning.

Although it has similarities to the importance of using the CLT approach, this study also revealed that, in contrast to CLT's priorities, teachers across all levels of experience and training prioritised the teaching of accuracy over the teaching of fluency. This method seems acceptable, since fluency in using a language occurs when the students learn the use of the language rather than its usage. As noted during the classroom observations, their priority is linguistic structures or grammar and pronunciation which, they believe, are areas that

enhance the ability of the students to use the form in leisure activities such as singing, listening and other related aspects.

The result may help understand the CLT approach further, and could address what still needs to be done to improve it as a form of teaching. Some of the criticism of CLT has actually expressed the same sentiments, in that there is a need to place importance not just on the ability to communicate easily and with fluency, but also on learning the correct use of the language through accuracy.

In favour of the CLT approach, listening plays a significant role in students' improvement, since it enhances the fluency of the listener, which is related to the manner in which a student speaks. This also encourages the students to search for the meanings of the words they have heard. For teachers across all levels of experience and training, teaching language through Other Topics enhances the language ability of the students in terms of Form, because they have to express and apply it when discussing various topics other topics. Even though the teachers prefer to focus on language form, they may be able to explain function and discourse.

This study shows that the teachers see themselves as having authority and as providing knowledge and guidance to their students, but the teachers are also aware that their role is limited to the topics they teach, even though they are willing to extend themselves to applying the language outside of the classroom or school. Also, respondents across all levels of experience and training are aware of the importance of real communicative purposes; thus, they will correct the identified errors immediately. The teachers retain their focus on accuracy in order to achieve an effective communicative and linguistic outcome.

The results of the study show that the concern that teachers do not actually comprehend the real meaning of CLT is baseless. Although there are some cases in which criticisms of CLT might state that teachers are not familiar with how to use CLT, based on the results of this

study, teachers knew their roles and their boundaries and were very conscious of them. Based on the interviews, the data analysis revealed the same results, whereby teachers see grammatical errors as bad models, which is why they continue to correct and remind the students about the proper usage of language, its structure and its purpose. They believe that fluency is easily acquired, but can only provide short-term benefits. Accuracy, however, may lead to long-term benefits for the students.

This study has shown the gains obtained via CLT, and has also found that the perceptions, attitudes and beliefs of teachers regarding the CLT approach in terms of the importance of group or pair work do not match the results of the COLT evaluation and interview questions. Educationally trained, highly experienced teachers, educationally trained teachers with medium levels of experience and even non-educationally trained teachers with low-level experience were aware that group work activities are essential for cooperative relationships and for productive interactions in order for the learners to improve. Non-educationally trained, highly experienced and non-educationally trained teachers with medium-level experience also had a similar perception.

The study has shown that there is a difference between theory and practice. Even though the teachers knew the importance of group work, this does not match the classroom observations or the interview questions, because the teachers prefer to have a Teacher-to-Student or a Teacher-to-Class interaction. Therefore, participation among students is more likely to occur in an environment in which all participants have an equal opportunity to learn and to explore the issues and ideas in depth. Because of this, an interactive conversation occurs directly, as the students know that, whenever they share their opinions, their teacher is there to listen to their comments and to respond to their questions sincerely. The teacher is someone they look up to, which results in trust in and acceptance of the teacher by the students, and encourages a greater response on the part of the students. Teachers across all

levels of experience and training believe that students should also work towards improvement. In fact, teachers want to know the individual areas of difficulty of their students in order to be able to correct them immediately. In line with this, the study examined possible aspects of CLT that need to be improved.

The passion of teachers across all levels of experience and training is evident. This is why they continue to strive towards their goals until the students become proficient, or at least able to use the language. Through training in CLT implementation, teachers are able to assess CLT, which enables them to determine whether they really need it based on their abilities and on the environment. The teachers' ability to teach is unquestioned. However, resources are a real problem for them.

#### 5.4 Limitations and Recommendations for Future Research

The present study is only limited to teachers with certain levels of experience and training in Libyan secondary schools. Any generalisation beyond this is outside of the scope of this study. The other limitation of this study is the number of samples used. The researcher used 24 samples under the said classification. However, due to the significance observed in this study, a slight increase in sample size is assumed to lead to similar statistical results. Thus, a change in environment may lead to a different statistical result.

Even though this study has some limitations, a promising result that has the potential for future research was observed. As noted, the respondents' perceptions of the importance of grammar instruction and the role of the teacher match what is actually happening in classes, although their perceptions of group and pair work do not. Thus, future researchers may use a similar concept in a different environment or setting to test whether they will be able to reach the same conclusions as this study. Furthermore, an increase in the sample is recommended, as is a different research design, in the interests of a larger and a more conclusive scope.

The results showed that there are still aspects of CLT in the school that need to be improved. A suggestion for future research is that same study should be conducted in a school that is also using the CLT approach in order to compare the data for further analysis of the effects of learning process. In addition, a longitudinal study could be conducted in order to discover whether there was an improvement in the learners' skills or in the teachers' practice and whether the CLT approach is actually successful.

## 5.5 Conclusion

Based on the results of this study, the participants are passionate about their chosen profession. Even though there are some barriers to achieving the goal of students being proficient in using the second language, such as a lack of resources, this did not prevent the teachers from maintaining their roles as providers of knowledge and guidance for their students. By providing guidance to the students and by being a source of authority in the classroom, they are looking for alternative methods, other than the CLT approach, to apply in their respective classrooms.

However, although the teachers are open to learning more about the CLT approach, its importance and its long- and short-term benefits for the students, it is very important that the government needs to address some of the factors that may affect the implementation of CLT, such as the lack of resources and training. Teachers are eager to participate in any meetings/conferences concerning the CLT approach and how it can bridge the gap between what the students know and what they need to know in order to balance the goals of accuracy and fluency for the students. The only thing is lacking for bridging the gap is to provide teachers with the tools to improve the implementation of CLT and to help their students to learn.

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*Error Correction in ESL classroom* <<http://www.teacherjoe.us/TeachersCorrection.htm>>

## Appendices

### Appendix 1

Teacher's Survey Questionnaire: Beliefs and attitudes of Libyan EFL secondary school teachers about Communicative Language Teaching.

Please read each of the questions item carefully and also take note that your responses will be held confidential.

The questionnaire was adapted from Karavas-Doukas (1996), ELT Journal, 50. PP: 187-196.

#### Part 1: Demographic Information

Place of graduation: College of Teachers Training ☐ College of Arts ☐

Other ☐ Please specify.....

Male ☐

Female ☐

School Name ..... Number of students in your class.....

Please write your name, your phone number and your email address (optional).

Total years of teaching English Language

Less than one year ☐

Over five years ☐

Over 10 years ☐

#### Part 2: Teacher Beliefs questionnaire

a) Importance of grammar instructions

Please reply to each of the following statements. Choose 1, if you strongly Disagree, or 2, if you Disagree, or 3, if you Undecided, or 4, if you Strongly Agree or 5, if you Agree.

- 1- Grammatical correctness is the most important criterion by which language performance should be judged.

1	2	3	4	5
---	---	---	---	---

1	2	3	4	5
---	---	---	---	---

2. Grammar should be taught only as a means to an end and not as an end in itself.

1	2	3	4	5
---	---	---	---	---

3. Knowledge of the rules of a language does not guarantee ability to use the language.

1	2	3	4	5
---	---	---	---	---

4. By mastering the rules of grammar. Students become fully capable of communicating with a native speaker

1	2	3	4	5
---	---	---	---	---

5. For most students, language is acquired most effectively when it is used as a vehicle for doing something else rather than studied as a primary end in itself.

1	2	3	4	5
---	---	---	---	---

6. Direct instructions in the rules and terminology of grammar are essential if students are to learn to communicate effectively.

1	2	3	4	5
---	---	---	---	---

- 7- When a learner comes to the language classroom with little or no knowledge of the language, he/she cannot be expected to suggest what the content of the lesson should be or what activities are useful for him/her.

1	2	3	4	5
---	---	---	---	---

8. Training learners to take responsibility for their own learning is not feasible when learners are not used to such an approach.

1	2	3	4	5
---	---	---	---	---

b) The role of the teacher

9. The teacher as "authority" and "instructor" no longer describes all the teacher's roles in the language classroom.

1	2	3	4	5
---	---	---	---	---

10. The learner-centered approach to language teaching encourages responsibility and self-discipline to development to full potential.

1	2	3	4	5
---	---	---	---	---

11. In a large class, it is not possible to organize teaching so as to meet all individual needs.

12. The teacher as transmitter of knowledge is only one of the many different roles he/she performs during the course of a lesson.

1	2	3	4	5
---	---	---	---	---

13. The role of the teacher in the language classroom is to impart knowledge through activities such as explanation, writing and example.

1	2	3	4	5
---	---	---	---	---

14. Tasks and activities should be negotiated and adapted to suit the students' needs rather than determined by the teacher in advance.

1	2	3	4	5
---	---	---	---	---

15. To meet all the needs and interests, the teacher must supplement the textbook with other materials and tasks.

1	2	3	4	5
---	---	---	---	---

c) Group and pair work activities

16. Group work activities are essential for cooperative relationships and productive interactions among students to emerge.

1	2	3	4	5
---	---	---	---	---

17. Group work allows students to explore problems for themselves and thus have some measure of control over their own learning.

1	2	3	4	5
---	---	---	---	---

18. Group work activities are not an efficient use of planning and teaching time.

1	2	3	4	5
---	---	---	---	---

19. Small group work may occasionally be useful to vary the routine, but should be secondary to sound formal instruction by a competent teacher.

1	2	3	4	5
---	---	---	---	---

20. Group work activities have limited value since it is very difficult for the teacher to monitor the students' performance and prevent them from using their mother tongue.

1	2	3	4	5
---	---	---	---	---

21. For students to become effective communicators in the foreign language, the teachers' feedback must be focused on the appropriateness and not the linguistic form of the students' responses.

1	2	3	4	5
---	---	---	---	---

22. Unless all their grammatical errors are corrected, students will be at risk of imperfect learning.

1	2	3	4	5
---	---	---	---	---

23. Since errors are a normal part of learning, too much time should not be spent in correction.

1	2	3	4	5
---	---	---	---	---

24. The communicative approach to language teaching produces fluent but inaccurate learners.

1	2	3	4	5
---	---	---	---	---

This is the end of the questionnaire

Thank you very much for your cooperation and assistance for contributing to this research project.



## Appendix 2

### The interview questions

#### a) Teaching language in classroom

- 1- What do you think is the most important skill in teaching FL, listening, speaking, reading or listening?
- 2- Why?
- 3- Do you think EFL learners should be pushed to communicate in English from the beginning of language learning
- 4- Is it possible that students can interact in English with each other if put in pairs/groups?
- 5- Is it possible to speak English during the whole lesson without using your L1?
- 6- Do you speak English all the time with your learners, during classroom time?
- 7- Do you use group and pair work activities in your lessons and when?

#### b) CLT implementation:

- 1- Is it possible to implement CLT in Libyan secondary schools
- 2- Is it possible to implement other methods rather than CLT approach?
- 3- Are there any constraints encountering the implementation of CLT?
- 4- Are resources available in Libyan secondary schools?
- 5- Do you undertake training courses?

#### c) Instruction

- 1- Can learners acquire the rules of grammar subconsciously through just hearing input?
- 2- Is it possible to teach grammar through communicative activities without explanation or drilling?
- 3- Do you think using language for a real communicative purpose will result in fluency and accuracy?
- 4- How do you use English for a real purpose in the classroom?
- 5- Do you explain grammar rules or do you teach them implicitly through pattern drilling?
- 6- Do you think the teacher in the foreign language classroom is to provide target language input?
- 7- What role do you assume in your classroom, a provider of knowledge or a guide of

- 8- students' activities?
  - 9- If you aim for communicative competence. How would you focus on accuracy?
  - 10- Is it possible to teach fluency before accuracy or accuracy before fluency or both at the same time? Which is more difficult to do and why?
  - 11- Which is more difficult to do accuracy or fluency? And why?
  - 12- Do you teach fluency before accuracy or both at the same time?
- d) Error correction
- 1- What do errors represent?
  - 2- Which errors do you think you need to correct, those affecting meaning or those affecting language?
  - 3- Is it possible to ignore students' errors during a communicative activity? And which errors would you ignore?
  - 4- Which errors would you ignore during a communicative activity?
  - 5- How often do you correct your pupils' errors?
  - 6- Do you immediately correct them or do you leave them after the activity is finished?
- Deleted.

### Appendix 3

#### Covering Letter of Teacher's Questionnaire

Dear teacher

I am Salem Etaher Abu Talag. I am a PhD research student at the School of Modern Languages and Cultures at Durham University in the UK. I am conducting a research about Libyan EFL secondary school teachers' implementation of the Communicative Language Teaching approach and the challenges encountering its implementation.

As I believe you, as a teacher, play a crucial role of providing valuable information in implementing and developing educational innovations, I would like to invite you to participate in this research by answering the questionnaire in full as possible as you can. It will take about 40 minutes to complete.

Please be assured that the data you provided will be highly valued and will be used to support this research.

NB:

- 1- Your participation is voluntarily, so you can withdraw your participation at any time.
- 2- Information provided will be confidential.
- 3- An Arabic version is available on request.

Thank you very much

The researcher

Salem Abu Talag

## Appendix 4

Durham University

School of Modern Languages and Cultures

To whom it may concern:

Re: Mr. Salem Etaher Abu Talag (Student No.)

This is to certify that Salem Etaher Abu Talag is fully registered as a full-time PhD student at the School of Modern Languages and cultures, Durham University and will collect his data in Libyan Secondary Schools during the period from April 2010 to June 2010.

Please do not hesitate to contact me if you require further information

Signed by

Durham University

## Appendix 5

### Consent Form

I agreed to be interviewed and observed twice by the researcher and I also agreed to be tape-recorded.

Teacher's signature